

The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume III.
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Historical Method in the Seventeenth Century

BY NANCY E. SCOTT, PH.D., WILSON COLLEGE, CHAMBERSBURG, PA.

Good historical method is not exclusively the invention of the scientific historians of the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. I suspect that if we were to search we might find that all through the ages at least a few orderly minds have been conscious of some of its laws. Certainly was this true of a Mr. John Hales, who lived in the midst of the most disorderly period of that most disorderly century, the seventeenth. His little tract on "The Method of Reading Profane History" contains many familiar maxims. In principle it might almost have stepped forth from a modern seminar presided over by the genius of Langlois and Seignobos. Hales did not, indeed, make any attempt to produce a formal or exhaustive treatise after the manner of the excellent manual of the latter gentlemen. His tract, it seems, from occasional references within it, was merely in answer to the request of a friend who was about to undertake the guidance of a young gentleman in his study of Roman history. That it should even, under these circumstances, be so complete and scientific is the more remarkable. But the friend chose his advisor well. He realized the value of chips from Hales' mental workshop, since no scholar of his day was accounted wiser. He had been for a time professor of Greek at Oxford, but later withdrew to the seclusion of a fellowship at Eaton College, where he lived and worked among his books. Although he lived thus apart from men, he had a large circle of friends who esteemed him highly and who sought his advice on almost every possible subject. Anthony à Wood spoke of him as "that most incomparable person, whom I may justly style a walking dictionary." Other men, too, of undoubted standing bore witness, not only to his knowledge, but to his judgment. They spoke of him as "the best critic of our later times," "a man of as great a sharpness, quickness, and subtilty of wit, as ever this or perhaps any nation bred"—"as great a master of polite, various, and universal learning, as ever yet conversed with books." Obviously, such a man's advice as to methods had back of it the force of practical experience. And experience, it seems, provided it be wide and deep enough, has not changed much in its needs since then.

Hales' use in his title of "reading" rather than studying with reference to history has a particularly seventeenth century flavor. One feels in his term the touch of the scholar of big proportions who took so much pleasure in the process of acquiring knowledge that he could give to it no term implying an interest which had even momentarily to be an enforced one. Its use was a part of the fullness of joy of Renaissance scholarship, and betokened no loss of dignity. To read history, as Hales understood it, involved quite as much of painstaking care as is indicated by a modern student under a more high-sounding term. A surprising number of his rules for that reading are, as we shall see, quite in keeping with those learned in a modern class room.

Note his emphasis on chronology and geography, our familiar "handmaids of history": "In perusal of history," said he, "first, provide you some writers in chronology and cosmography." "For," he argued, "if you be ignorant of times and places, when and where things you read were done,

it cannot choose but breed confusion in your reading, and make you many times grossly to slip and mistake in your discourse." Scientific aids in such matters, it seems, were as well known then as now. Ploetz and Putzger are not pioneers in their fields. "Have by you," continued Hales, "Helvicius, His Chronology; and a map of the country in which you are conversant; and repair unto them to acquaint you with time and place, when, and where you are. If you be versing the ancient histories, then provide you Ptolomy's maps, or Ortelius his *Conatus Geographici*; if the latter, then some of the modern carts." In these fields the Germans were even then the leaders. "Helvicius, His Chronology," refers to the *Theatrum Chronologicum* published in 1609 by Christopher Helwig, or Helvicius, professor of Greek at Giesen. Ortelius, or Abram Oertel, was a German living at Antwerp. He was Philip II's geographer, the friend of Mercator, and called by his contemporaries the Ptolomy of his age. Hales knew the best authorities.

"To give him a general taste of his business and add light unto particular authors," he counseled his reader before taking up detailed study, to make use of an epitome, not Ploetz this time, but L. Florus, a Latin historian of the second century, who wrote a compendium of Roman history from the beginning to the time of Augustus. Hales would finish out Florus with "Eutropius, His Breviarum," which carried the story to 364. It was a manual of the last quarter of the fourth century, and long in popular use.

Of the benefits of external criticism in the establishment of accurate texts he was well aware. Faulty editions were always to be avoided. "One's choice," he said, "is best of those whom either Lipsius, Gruterius, or Casaubon have set forth." These men represented the best critical scholarship of the continent in the preceding generation. "But," added Hales, with a queer little practical touch, "if you be careful to buy fair books, you can scarcely choose amiss." His comments upon the text of Tacitus show that the latter was a fruitful source of trouble then as now. "But as for Tacitus, the chief cock in the court basket, it is," he said, "but meet you take special good advice in reading of him." "Lipsius, Savile, Picheva and others" (the first three had published the most recent critical editions of Tacitus), these men, said Hales, "have taken great pains with him in emaculating the text, in settling the reading, opening the customs, expounding the story, etc., and therefore you must have recourse unto them." "But," this, he added significantly, "was necessary in only critical and not courtly learning." Advice concerning the latter was evidently what his reader wanted for the instruction of his young gentleman. For that purpose, continued Hales, "Tacitus required other kind of comment." "For since he is a concise, dense, and by repute a very oraculus writer, almost in every line pointing at some state maxim; it had been a good employment for some good wit to have expounded, proved, exemplified at large, what he doth for the most part only but intimate." And this was long, long before the scholarly warfare of Seeböhm, Ross, Freeman, and Taylor in their attempt to supply this very kind of comment. Certainly modern students will re-echo

the wish of Hales that it might have been done once for all. Some one of whom Hales knew had attempted it, but, as he said, "to little purpose." Gruterius, the Dutch scholar of the preceding generation, "had done somewhat." Scipio Ammirati or Ammirato, the famous historian of Florence, of the sixteenth century, had "glossed him in some places," but, added Hales, it was "according to the shallowness of the new Italian wits," a curious commentary on the Italian scholarship following the floodtide of the Renaissance. One man indeed had attempted an extensive commentary on Tacitus. "Annibal Scotus, groom of the chamber to Sixtus Quintus," the reforming pope from 1585-90, "hath desperately gone through him all, whom I would wish you to look upon," said Hales, with his dry humor, "not for any good you shall reap by him (for he is the worst that I have ever read) only you shall see by that which he had with great infelicity attempted, what kind of comment it is, which if it were well performed would be very acceptable to us."

He emphasized the value of source study. In choosing authors, he said, "make special account of those who wrote the things of their own times, or in which themselves were agents, especially, added he, as if fresh from a perusal of Langlois and Seignobos on the test for good faith and accuracy, "if you find them to be such as durst tell the truth." Of the pitfalls of style, or heroics, or of prejudice into which poorly prepared writers of secondary works were apt to stumble, he was well aware. "Where men," said he, "write and decipher actions, long before their time, they may do it with great wit and elegance, express much politic wisdom, frame very beautiful pieces, but how far they express the true countenance and life of the actions themselves, of this," he added in his quaint seventeenth century way, "it were no impiety to doubt; unless we were assured that they drew it from those who knew and saw what they did."

The list of authors whom, in keeping with these ideas, he recommended for reading in Roman history would, I fear, somewhat astound the modern college student. First in the list came Livy, whom he described as "very much broken, and imperfect and parts of him lost." "Wherefore," he advised, "when you have gone him through, then, if you please, you may look back, and take a view of his imperfections, and supply them out of some other authors, partly Latin, as Justin, Sallust, Caesar's Commentaries, Hirtius, Velleius, Peterculus; partly Greek, as Polybius, Plutarch, Dionysius, Halicarnassus, Appianus Alexandrinus, Dion Cassius; out of which," he modestly added, "you may reasonably supply whatsoever is wanting in Livy." He made only one concession. "Your Greek authors," he said, "if you list not to trouble yourself with the language, you shall easily find in Latin sufficient to your use. "Only Plutarch," he continued, "whatever the matter is, hath no luck to the Latin, and therefore I would advise you either to read him in French or in English." Continuing with his list, for the history of the Empire, he advised reading Seutonius Tranquillus, "who being perused," said he, "your way lies open to the reading of our politicians' great apostle, Tacitus." As the same "infelicity" had befallen him as Livy, he was to be supplemented by Dion Cassius or his epitomizer, Xiphiline. "And thus are you come to the reign of Nerva where Seutonius and Tacitus ended; hitherto to come," he concluded, "is a reasonable talk for you yet." I imagine his correspondent quite agreed with him. Hales would, if he wished, in another letter, relate the state of the story to Constantine's death, or farther, to the fall of the Western Empire," interesting conclusions to us—since they are neither 395 or 800, the dates with which we usually end our texts. If the second letter was ever called for, it is not preserved among Hales' papers.

Hales next proceeded to advise his friend as to what facts he ought to glean from this mass of material. They could,

he said, be roughly grouped under three heads, the story itself, *miscellanea*, and *moralia*. For the first, one might use an epitome, for such existed, he said, "as good as any you can frame of your own." But advised he, with discreet pedagogical insight, "if you did intend an exact knowledge of history, it were good you did this yourself, though it were *actum agere*; because what we do ourselves sticks best in our memories, and is most for use." For his second head, *miscellanea*, he certainly could have used no other term, since he included under it such diverse things as "names and genealogies of men; description of cities, hills, rivers, woods, etc., customs, offices, magistrates, prodigies; "certain quaint observations, as who was the first dictator? When the Romans first began to use shipping? or to coin gold? what manner of moneys the ancients used? their manner of war and military instruments, and an infinite multitude of like nature." Evidently his conception of history was that of a well nigh all embracing subject, for surely here is much that we would class under geography, civics, economics, etc. I don't know just where we would place the "prodigies." Division of labor in the fields of the past had not gone very far in his day. All these *miscellanea* he termed "pleasant, but merely critical and scholastic" and hence not especially valuable to his friend for the instruction of the young gentleman. The third head, termed *moralia*, was, he advised him, the all important one, "that Penelope which you must woo." *Moralia* he defined as "all notable examples of justice, or religion, etc., apothegms, civil stratagems and plots to bring ends about; censures upon men's persons and actions; considerations upon men's natures and dispositions; all things that may serve for proof or disproof, illustration or amplification of any moral place; considerations of the circumstances of actions; the reasons why they prove successful; or their errors, if they prove unfortunate; as in the second Punic war, why Hannibal still prevailed by hastening his actions; Fabius, on the contrary, by delay. And this indeed is one of the special profits that come by history."

To the modern historian that word "*moralia*" looks suspicious. It smacks of history as a guide for present acts. But Hales used the word in another sense. By *moralia* he meant the interpretation of the materials of history, merely the giving of those explanations which would make the past better understood. His use of the word in a different sense from ours was the result of his sharp distinction between the epitome, the mere catalogue of events, and the more detailed history. All that lay back of acts themselves, motives, connection with past events, all that was psychological in character, he put under his term *moralia*. This fact he made clear in his comments upon Polybius whom he considered ("might we have him perfect") "one of the best that ever wrote story." And his reason was, that "whereas other historians content themselves to touch and point at the true reasons of events in civil business; Polybius, when he hath historically set down an action worthy consideration, leaves it not so, but reviews it, considers all the circumstances that were of force in the manage of it." Here is nothing but what may well harmonize with Ranke's famous, "I will simply tell you how it was."

In only one place does he seem, according to our canons, to have been unorthodox. While condemning, righteously enough, what he termed "a common scholastic error," namely, "the filling of note-books with observations of great and famous events, either of great battles, or civil broils and contentions," "hero history," I suppose we would call it, he advised with great truth that "those who travel in history" ought to note the "things of ordinary course—to have a care of those discourses which express domestic and private actions," adding, however, the dubious reason, "especially if they be such wherein you yourself purpose to venture your fortunes." But perhaps in the light of what he has already

said, he meant no more than the observation of the general principles underlying some of the sciences of human activity, such as law, ethics, or economics. Even if he did not, I think we shall be willing not to allow his one error to stand too heavily against him.

Finally, "from the order of reading, and the matters in reading to be observed, we come," concluded he, "to the method of observation; what order we are for our best use to keep in entering our notes in our paper-books." The most amazing thing that Hales very nearly accomplished and perhaps the most modern, was what amounted practically to the slip method of taking notes. He was a thorough believer in notes. His was to be no leisurely reading of history as one might read a novel. One was not only to take notes, but to "allot some time to the reading of them," not once, but as often as possible, in order that they might be the better fixed in memory. "The nature of things themselves," together with this process of "editing" them, as a professor of mine used to say, under a system of marginal references, would suffice in most cases.

The common-place books so prevalent in his day he held up to ridicule. They had, he felt, departed so far from their original plainness and simplicity that "it was a great part of clerkship to know how to use them." The process was so "expensive of time and industry, that although at length," said he, "the work comes to perfection, yet, it is but like the silver mines in Wales, the profit will hardly quit the pains." Hales had the big man's fine scorn of being buried in a maze of minutiae. He wished to avoid the great labor of being what he called "over superstitiously methodical." And what though peradventure something be lost," reasoned he,

"it is a sign of great poverty of scholarship, where everything that is lost is missed; whereas rich and well accomplished learning is able to lose many things with little or no inconvenience." However, as the friend to whom he was writing could not afford to waste any time since he was "at about the noon of his day," and since the young gentleman would perhaps not be "over willing to take too much pains," he advised in this case a simple method which could, he said, be used with "most ease and profit." Notes were to be taken straight along without any effort at arrangement. Meanwhile a large index was to be constructed, and topics, as they occurred to one while reading, placed in it "each under his letter." "For thus," he explained "though your notes be confused in your papers, yet they are digested in your index, and to draw them together when you are to make use of them, will be nothing so great pains as it would be to have ranged them under their several heads at their first gathering." Certainly here was an ancestor in the direct line of the slip method of our seminars.

Indeed, I believe that we who have been trained in those modern workshops of history receive an added joy for the consciousness that their excellent maxims are not wholly a product of our time, but that some of them, or at least their beginnings, were evolved from every-day working rules of earnest scholars scattered here and there along the centuries. And of none could we have a more pleasing picture than of John Hales from the quiet of his study at Eaton, giving voice in this informal way, in a letter to his friend, to so many principles which have become the recognized bulwarks of historical scholarship.

Roman Survivals in Modern Life

An Illustration of the Unity of History.*

BY WILLIAM STARR MYERS, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AND POLITICS, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

Before turning our attention to Roman survivals in modern life, we should give a little thought to Rome herself, as she was in the days of her greatest glory, ere she fell prey to the invading barbarians, for, uniting in herself the results of the ancient civilization that had preceded her, she impressed on them the peculiar stamp of her being, and through her universal empire spread them abroad again, to permeate and influence the whole course of subsequent history.

The Roman Empire owed its greatness to the fact that its citizen put before everything his devotion to the political body; he surrendered himself and all his family, social, and business relations to the good of the state. In every-day life the Romans as a people were exceedingly industrious, and from the first thrifty and close in all their business dealings, being "keen in traffic and usurious in lending" (Merivale). As regards public life, their government was an imperial democracy, strongly centralized. The state did not exist for the individual, but the individual for the state.

Furthermore, as Ihne says—"the constitutional development of the republic attained its highest point in the course of the Punic Wars. After the fundamental principles of the republican constitution had been established in the time preceding the Hortensian Laws (287 B.C.), the succeeding generations contented themselves with applying those principles to the ever-varying circumstances in which they found

themselves, without attempting to introduce new ones. But the change in all outward conditions of power, wealth, culture, greatness and influence abroad, was so complete that the old machinery could not bear the strain thus necessarily put upon it. The republican form of government gave way after a severe and long-continued struggle, and finally the monarchy was established on its ruins." The empire became an unlimited despotism, without any ministry, nobles, or clergy, the parliamentary body, the Senate, being completely the tool of the Emperor.

The Roman religion was polytheistic, each of the powers of nature, each virtue, each art, being supposed to be the manifestation of some deity. Their gods were not clothed with human form, but were of a faraway, mystical, spiritual nature, cold and unsympathetic. Hence the people lost faith and interest in them, and drifted away into abject infidelity and agnosticism.

At last, after more than a thousand years of relative success, Rome fell before the terrible onslaughts of the barbarians, and as a world-power existed no more. Ever since that time, as Bryce says, "she has been a city of destruction, and Christians have vied with pagans, citizens with enemies, in urging on the fatal work."

But although Rome lost her universal sovereignty, she still lives in the laws, customs, government, and institutions of modern times, for the underlying principle of much of our civilization is Roman. In A.D. 476 her earthly government fell, but, strange to state, though nevertheless the inevitable

* From a lecture delivered to the class in Roman History at the Summer School of the South (University of Tennessee), Knoxville, Tenn., July, 1912.

outcome of a commonwealth with the character of that of the Roman Empire, her power became to a great extent spiritual, the *Church* took the place of the state. The free-spirited Roman could find no liberty equal to that of the Christian society,—the people turned to the Church for comfort and protection, for even the barbarian revered it. It became the moving force that unified Europe.

The Catholic Church, though Greek in its creed, and Asiatic in worship, was Roman in its constitution, the institutions of Rome passing over into its government. Says Bryce in his "Holy Roman Empire," "the church felt its need of some centralized government, and naturally turned to the Roman Empire for its model." The Pope, the supreme head of this spiritual state, is the ghost of the Emperor, a spiritual Caesar. His name comes from that of the old "Pontifex Maximus," one of the most venerable and ancient of the political religious offices in Rome. "The chair of state, the *sella gestatoria*, in which the Pope is borne aloft, is the ancient palanquin of the Roman nobles, and, of course, of the Roman princes. The red slippers which he wears are the red shoes of the Roman Emperor. The kiss which the faithful imprint on those shoes is the descendant of the kiss first imprinted on the foot of the Emperor Caligula, who introduced it from Persia" (Dean Stanley in "Christian Institutions").

The name and the idea of the "diocese" came from the political divisions of the empire. The orientation of the church buildings is from the ritual of the Etruscan augury, many other church institutions and ceremonials being from the same source. The Roman office of tribune continued to some extent in the bishop, who, when he officiates to-day at an ordination in the Church of St. John Lateran, washes his hands according to the custom at ancient Roman banquets.

The Eucharist, according to Dean Stanley, was originally the daily social meal in which the sacrifice offered is not by the officiating priest, but by the people in the form of contributions from the first fruits of their labors. The vestments of the clergy were all secular in their origin, being simply the fashion common in the Roman Empire in the first three centuries of the Christian era. The same writer mentioned above continues: "The handkerchief with which the Roman gentry wiped their faces came to be regarded in the fifth century as wings of angels, and in the seventh as the yoke of Christian life. Just so have the ponchos and waterproofs of the Roman peasants and laborers come in the nineteenth century to be regarded as emblems of sacrifice, priesthood, real presence, communion with the Universal Church, Christian or ecclesiastical virtues." The close-fitting flannel robe that the Pope wears to-day is but the survival of the "toga," and the cassock was originally a leag overall introduced into Rome from France.

The Roman Senate, during the empire, was accustomed to give divine honors to the dead Emperors, and in the same way the Church now canonizes its "saints." The saving of and reverence for relics is inherited from the old Roman ancestors.

The Latin language, now looked upon as the sacred vehicle of divine thought and inspiration as embodied in ecclesiastical rituals and writings, was but the tongue of the vulgar herd of the Roman populace who worshipped day by day in the church building of early times, the building which was the transformed "basilica" or hall of justice of the empire.

The "naves" of our cathedrals of to-day come from the long hall in this building, divided by two rows of columns into a central aisle, with two side passages. The bishop takes his seat on the lofty tribunal of the praetor, and exhorts or commands with a moral power scarcely less strong than the power of the old legal authority.

Thus Rome still lives in a vivid and imperial manner in

the Church of to-day, and not only in the Roman Catholic wing of it, which is looked upon by its followers as embodying some peculiar divine sanction and benediction, but in that of the Protestants as well, who of course evolved many of their institutional forms from the being of the mother Church, the Church of the knight and crusader.

An early and powerful outgrowth of the ideas of universal spiritual and temporal sovereignty held by Rome and afterwards by its successor, the Roman Catholic Church, was the "Holy Roman Empire," which arose during the period 800-963 A.D., and existed for a thousand years in some form or other, and only perished in our own time. Even then it was the inspiration of that empire of to-day, which is the embodiment of an United Germany. This "Holy Empire" was far less an institution than a theory, a doctrine of an universal Christian monarchy. But it can never lose its important place in universal history, for "into it all the life of the ancient world was gathered; out of it all the life of the modern world arose" (Bryce). Thus the Church and this empire were the primary agencies by which the influence of Rome became realized in the life of to-day.

Also, in the field of civil and political institutions Roman ideals have exerted a powerful moulding influence. The Roman constitution was, as we have said above, a mixed form of government embodying at different times during its history a monarchy with some form of strongly centralized democracy. The constitution of England at the present time bears striking resemblances to it both in a modified form of the above, and in the fact, that both leave many points undetermined, and rely largely upon non-legal usages and understandings.

Rome was the mother of states. She taught the Teutons to live in towns, and also taught them the principles of political unity. Prior to their contact with Rome through counter offensive and defensive warfare, which finally ended with the fall of the imperial city, they had been entirely lacking in a knowledge of civil ideas, for their government was mainly tribal and their life little restrained by aught save the laws of military and tribal necessity.

The political Renaissance of Rome, as found in the laws and governments of to-day, is her greatest incarnation. She furnished the ideas on which the modern state is founded. The American Revolution and the subsequent constitution flashed on the world the Roman principles of sovereignty. The French Revolution and Republic realized the Republic of Rome, and Napoleon Bonaparte repeated the earlier transition to imperialism.

We of the United States seldom pause to consider how much of old Rome is embodied in our governments, state and national, municipal and local. James Bryce, in the "American Commonwealth" (Vol. I, pp. 413-5), says, "the state constitution begins with the English trade-guild of the Middle Ages, itself the child of still more ancient corporations, dating back to the days of imperial Rome, and formed under her imperishable law." Other traces of Roman influence are found not only in such institutions as our Senate and Judiciary, but also perhaps we may see in the New England "town-meetings" a survival of the "*comitia curiata*," in which, during the later Republic, the lictors met as representatives of the ancient "*curiae*" and constituted an assembly for the passing of wills and adoptions. The status of the citizens in our Territories of the United States is based on the Roman principle that "a distinction may be drawn between the private rights of citizenship and the public rights, which include the suffrage and eligibility to office" (in the national government).

In Europe, the modern systems of administration and police had their origin in and developed from the Roman institutions, which also supplied the force that finally overthrew the feudal system. The medieval principality, duchy,

and county began with Roman ideas, and afterwards combined to form the modern state, while the free towns were evolved from the Roman township. This latter inheritance, that of the municipal spirit, is one of the greatest heirlooms derived from this generous source. The continuance of municipal institutions can be traced directly in some cities in the south of France from the time of the empire to the beginnings of modern Europe. Our modern municipal system is a direct inheritance from Rome, and John G. Shepard states ("Fall of Rome," page 8) that it is "the only constitutional system which has outlived the Roman world."

Frederic Harrison sums it all up by saying ("Meaning of History," page 55): "It was the tradition of a Roman Emperor which, by long intermediate steps, transformed the Teutonic chieftain into the modern king or emperor. London, York, Lincoln, Winchester, Gloucester and Chester were Roman cities, and formed then, as they did for the earlier periods of history, the pivots of our national administration. Paris, Rouen, Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, in France; Constance, Basle, Coblenz, Cologne, upon the Rhine; Cadiz, Barcelona, Seville, Toledo, Lisbon, in the Iberian; Genoa, Milan, Verona, Rome, and Naples in the Italian peninsula, were in Roman, as in modern times, the great national centres of their respective countries. Above all else, Rome founded a permanent system of free obedience to the laws on the one hand, and a temperate administration of them on the other; the constant sense of each citizen having his place in a complete whole."

Naturally, when a student of history reads the above, he will wonder what was the specific, innate force that so permeated the Roman institutions that the civil and municipal administrations of modern Europe were the logical outcome. It seems to me that the explanation is Roman Law. In her law and the juridical principles derived therefrom, Rome stands supreme.

Says Mommsen ("History of Rome," Vol. I, page 217): "The greatness of Rome was involved in, and was based upon, the fact that the Roman people ordained for itself and endured a system of law, in which the eternal principles of freedom and of subordination, of property and of legal redress, reigned and still at the present-day reign unadulterated and unmodified."

The barbarians were much impressed with the majesty of this legal system, and the Germans, who had no laws or codes whatever, were for five hundred years under the tutelage of Roman jurisprudence, and their institutions were thoroughly permeated by it, before they gained the ascendancy in Europe and helped to spread its invigorating influence over the then civilized world. Half of the codes of modern Europe are based on the laws of Rome, and the other half has been thoroughly permeated or modified by it. The Visigothic legislation of Spain, founded on the laws of Theodosius, was strongly influenced by it; the "Etablissements" of St. Louis show marked traces of the "Pandects" of Justinian. Looking further, we find the influence of the jurisconsults is seen in the whole structure of the German jurisprudence, the "Prussian 'Gesetzbuch,'" and the English Common Law. Says Niebuhr in his monumental work on Rome: "The Germans cannot dispense with the Roman codes, since they have not matured that of their ancestors, and have lost its spirit."

The Code Napoléon, much of the Scottish law, and the International Law of to-day are directly based upon the Roman system. I may add that the code of the State of Louisiana is more nearly akin to the latter than that of any other part of the United States, for it is based directly on the Code Napoléon and the legal institutions of the south of Europe.

Rome first, in the time of Caracalla, made citizenship universal, and then backed it up and reinforced it with her own

law. Out of the old right of appeal to the tribune for protection came the opportunity for acquittal according to the juristic system which made of the Emperor a high appellate court, and gradually became transformed into the right of pardon vested in the monarchs and rulers of to-day. The Roman Law, which has been called "the most perfect political creation of the human mind," became the basis of the legal systems of Europe mainly because it has been found suitable in every age to the requirements of all stages of an enlightened civilization.

But again, Rome survives in a more palpable form, in a way that is evident to three-fourths of modern Christendom, that is, in the Latin language, in "the voice of empire and of war" now become the voice of learning, administration, salvation, and faith. All the majesty of the luxuriant ritual of the Roman Catholic Church, all the poetry of its beautiful hymns, all the sanctity of its heart-felt prayers, all of these, expressed in the tongue of imperial Rome, arise to heaven from the hearts of millions of devoted worshippers scattered broadcast over the entire world.

Not alone in spiritual and religious affairs is the Latin virtually existent. It was the language of diplomacy till the latter part of the seventeenth century when French took its place, and it lingered long after in the diplomatic conferences of the German Empire. It was the state language of Hungary till 1825, when Hungarian (or Magyar) was substituted. To-day it is still a medium of communication in learned and scholastic circles.

It is said that three-fourths of the words in the French language, the dominant tongue of continental Europe, are of Latin origin; and Spanish, Italian and Portuguese tell nearly the same story. Nearly half the vocabulary of the Englishman and native-born American is of Latin derivation, the Normans in their conquest of England being the philological bridge by means of which the Roman tongue crossed to amalgamate with the old Saxon dialects, and the school-boy of to-day repeats the same rules of grammar that were taught by the old Roman pedagogues.

Rome has not only given us the fruits of her own life, her own experience, her own thought—she has also unselfishly preserved and directly handed down to us the beauty, the thought, the literature of her sister people, the heroic Hellenes. The Alexandrian Empire carried Greek life to the far East; the Roman Empire bestowed it on the West. Through the agency of Rome "Greek language, literature, poetry, science, and art became the common education of the civilized world, and from the Grampians to the Euphrates, from the Atlas to the Rhine and the Caucasus, for the first and only time in the history of man, Europe, Asia, and Africa formed one political whole. The union of the oriental half, indeed, was mainly external and material, but throughout the western half a common order of ideas prevailed" (Frederic Harrison).

On the other hand, in the stern art of war, Rome furnished the basis for many a modern lesson. Her battles and campaigns were considered by such an high authority as Napoleon as well worthy of study as those of the great captains of modern times. Fabius and Caesar in many particulars outshone Wallenstein and Marlborough, or even the French Emperor himself. The legion and battalion of the old empire are the prototypes of the military organization of to-day.

Gibbon is authority for the statement that the domestic institutions of to-day are the transformation of the public reason of the Romans. We may find many of the peculiar ideas, superstitions, traditions, and customs of old Rome still alive in the life of the modern populace. The ring, the veil, the gifts, the groomsman and bridesmaids of wedding customs are all Roman in origin, as also the insignia and cus-

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Method and Scope of High School Economics*

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I believe in high school economics. I believe in it because I think that the boy and girl who are to pass on economic questions as voters should be trained in economic reasoning by disinterested teachers before they are called upon to vote. They will get lots of training anyway from self-appointed political instructors—but this isn't worth much. I want to see every voter accustomed to the analysis of economic problems and to the criticism of economic arguments before his decisions have to count.

I don't think I should favor high school economics were all high school graduates destined to the University. The subjects can be better grasped when the pupil is a bit mature and has a considerable range of general information. We do not admit freshmen to our economic courses at the university, and, *a fortiori*, high school students had better wait, if they can. The recorder of the faculties at Berkeley compiled some figures last December which showed that from 25 to 42 per cent. of the men and from 9 to 24 per cent. of the women graduates of our State high schools in the year 1910-11 entered some college or university. The largest percentages were in the Bay Counties and in Southern California, but even along the north coast 28 per cent. of the men and 9 per cent. of the women graduates went to college. These people can wait. But it follows that the majority of students cannot. They must get their economics at the high school if it is to be part of their formal education, and I am confident that it is wise to give it to them there.

I realize, too, that it is difficult and probably unwise to distinguish in the high school between those pupils who are going to college and those who are not. In the smaller schools, with a limited teaching force, it is altogether impossible. But as to this, two things may be said; the course in economics can be given so as to be of a good deal of value even to prospective college students. It should not be in any sense preparatory to college. It should be complete in itself, but it can give a good mental training. And this being true I am inclined to think that the university would extend its list of subjects accepted for matriculation credit to include economics if the demand should become very great. At present we accept courses 20a and 20b, describing them as follows:

20a. Economic Geography. (1½ units.)

Five periods a week for one half-year. Credit will be given only in connection with credit for Subject 12e (physical geography).

Economic Geography should be considered as an aspect of general geography, rather than as a distinct branch of the science. It should include the general principles of mathematical, physical, and biological geography. While including a study of countries, products, trade routes, etc., the chief emphasis of the course should be placed on the relations which exist between the fundamental principles of geography and the economic interests of man.

20b. Commercial and Industrial History. (3 units.)

Credit will be given only in conjunction with credit for Subject 13a (Medieval and Modern History).

This subject should comprise, in broad outline, the development of commercial and industrial activities in the western world. It should discuss such subjects as the economic inheritance from Rome and the East; the gradual renewal of trading after the Teutonic invasions; the revival of commerce under Arab influence; the growth from village to town economy; the Renaissance in Italy and the commercial supremacy of the city republics; the Age of Discovery and the development of economic "nationalities"; the industrial revolution and the conception of international division of labor; modern international trade and its significance, etc., etc. Emphasis should be laid on the interaction of political and economic factors in the growth of Western civilization; on the evolution and decay of economic "institutions"; and on "movements" rather than the facts of any particular period.

If California high schools were to develop courses in economics which were well done, and done by a considerable number of schools, I am inclined to think that they would be recognized. I have not the least authority to promise it, and I am far from sure that I should favor it, but I think it probably would be done. At the present time, in fact, there are four schools from which the general subject "Economics" is accepted as an elective for matriculation credit if completed in the third or fourth year of high school work. Of these schools, I may say, two are now teaching economic geography, one economic history, and one economic geography, principles, and advertising and salesmanship. The leeway allowed them is not therefore of great importance. The university has for some years offered courses in economics in its summer school, and this summer will do what it has not done since I have been connected with it, namely offer a course in the principles of economics designed mainly for teachers.

I propose to take as a text this afternoon the replies to some six or seven hundred letters which I have sent broadcast over the United States. These letters went to all the high schools in California whose applications for accrediting were on file at the University and to the fifteen largest high schools in each State of the Union, except where there were less than fifteen high schools in a State. From California schools I have received 103 replies—from schools outside of California 133. They afford, I think, a rather vivid picture of the present condition of high school instruction in economics, particularly in California.

Now these replies show first of all that economic teaching is pretty wide-spread. Forty-one out of 103 replies from California, or 41 per cent., stated that classes in economics were being conducted. Eighty-one out of the schools outside the State made similar answer, or 62 per cent. The difference is partly due to the fact that the extra-State schools are on the average larger than those written to within the State—a result inevitable from the way my mailing list was prepared, and not in any case easily avoided. And not only is the teaching of economics common, but there is a marked belief that the demand for it will increase. Fifty-four of the schools outside of California so replied to the question put them—34 of them declaring that the increased demand would be in the immediate, 4 that it would be in the distant future, and the rest not specifying; 21 only believed that the demand would not increase, 55 did not reply at all, and 3 were doubtful. In California, out of 41 schools which give economics, 23 believe that the demand for it will increase, 7 think it will not, 2 are doubtful, and 9 do not answer. The conviction that the demand will increase is not confined to the schools which are giving economics. About one-eighth of those schools outside of California which have no economic course and about one-sixth of similar schools in California look forward to an increased demand and in the majority of cases to the introduction of courses in the near future.

These answers were the more surprising to me since no forecast of them was to be found in statistics available at the university. We matriculate something over a thousand students each year. Last year not a single entrant offered any form of economics for matriculation credit, and this year only twenty-three offered this subject. The development of economic instruction is apparently quite recent, and due perhaps to a better appreciation of the possibilities of the study in part, also to the general tendency to widen high school curricula, and to the increasing interest in economic problems among the people at large. We have a chance in California to see that the moving force is *not* a change in the attitude of the university, for the second most popular subject among high schools is the Principles of Economics, for

* Paper read before the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, April 6th, 1912.

which the university ordinarily allows no credit. And it is as little to be explained by an abundance of trained teachers. The greater number of teachers of economics in our high schools have majored in history; some in languages, some in law,—some have taken courses in economics at college and some have had business experience. Only one student has taken her major for a teacher's certificate in economics at the University of California in recent years.

A second general fact that appears from the answers to my queries is that the number of subjects taught remains limited in spite of the growth of the teaching. For convenience of reference I tabulate the subjects offered and the number of schools offering each, separating the figures for California from those for the other States.

Subjects Taught.	Number of Schools Teaching.	
	In California.	In other States.
Commercial Geography	24	50
Principles	18	56
Economic History	9	15
Commercial Law	5	16
Banking	2	1
Industrialism	1	0
Finance	1	1
Advertising and Salesmanship	1	1
Sociology	1	0
General Lectures	1	0

Over 80 per cent. of the courses offered in California and over 86 per cent. of those offered outside were in the fields of Principles, Commercial Geography and Economic History. And since the courses in practically all schools comprise five hours per week of instruction during one term, this means that corresponding percentages of time are devoted to these subjects. The concentration is rather remarkable. At the university we offer courses in some twenty-three distinct subjects, including all those just tabulated, and in addition Accounting, Insurance, Money, Foreign Exchange Statistics, Labor, Corporation Finance, Financial History, Railroads, Crises, Social Reform, and Care of Dependents. Some universities have an even more elaborate program. One would suppose that the natural probabilities would have led to a more scattering choice of subjects by the schools. Probably the fact that the University accepts Commercial Geography and Economic History for matriculation credit has been in part responsible for the introduction of these studies in California, while the study of principles seems naturally to follow. Some tradition as to the nature of the study best adapted to high school work probably also plays its part. Geography and History are matters which may be *learned*, at least as they are apt to be taught to elementary pupils. They are also subjects which may be added to the repertory of teachers trained in History and Geography with less difficulty than subjects like Railroad Economics, Foreign Exchange, Labor or Banking.

Nevertheless, I should be sorry to see the tendency which this indicates submitted to without careful thought in each individual case. I dissent strongly from the belief that there is but a limited range of subjects in economics suitable for high school work. Any field, except the most narrowly technical, may serve to illustrate forcibly the fundamental laws of utility and cost, demand and supply. Any field will afford examples of complex economic phenomena, and may yield practice in methodical analysis. Consider, to illustrate this point, the apparently diverse subjects of bimetallism and of railroad rates. A bimetallic monetary system implies free coinage and unlimited legal tender power of two metals, usually gold and silver. The possibility of its maintenance depends upon the ability of a country to keep the market values of gold and silver in a given relation to each other; say in the proportion of sixteen ounces of silver to one ounce of gold. These market values can be affected only by varying the supply of gold and silver upon the market. The government can retire gold and put out silver, or it can retire silver and put out gold. In the one case the value of gold

will rise relatively to that of silver, and in the other case it will fall. The ability of a government to affect values depends in practice upon its own supplies of precious metals. If it possesses but little gold it can depress the value of gold but slightly by throwing its holdings upon the market in exchange for silver, and the market value of gold may remain higher than the mint value. In this case no gold but only silver will be brought to the mint for coinage, and the nominal bimetallic system will give way to a currency composed in fact exclusively of silver. If on the other hand the government's supply of gold be sufficient, so large a volume of the gold may be sold and so large a volume of silver bought that the relative market values of the metals may be set at any point which the government may care to fix. Neither gold nor silver will be presented exclusively for coinage, and the currency will be truly bimetallic. The problem is one of supply and demand.

Turn now to the question of railroad rates. The rates which a railroad charges are the source of its income. The more railroads the keener the competition, the lower the rates and the less the income per mile of road. The fewer the railroads the greater the income. But railroads are expensive. They will not be constructed unless a certain minimum income can be anticipated. The fact of this cost limits the supply, and the limitation of the supply prevents earnings and hence value from decreasing below a certain point. We may even push the analysis further. The railroad supplies a great variety of services and charges a great variety of rates. Its services are distinct, its costs are largely joint. Its earnings from all sources must cover its total expenses; the extent to which it will develop any given business will depend upon the rapidity with which the earnings from that business over the specific costs will decline as the supply of facilities for that business is increased. And this is the law of supply and demand again.

I submit that a high school course in economics should do five things:

1. It should describe and make the student familiar with the nature of economic problems.
2. It should make evident the fact that these problems are complex.
3. It should show that nevertheless the problems can be analyzed.
4. It should give practice in analysis and teach methods of attack.
5. It should discuss the broad underlying principles common to all forms of economic activity.

And I may restate my attitude as to choice of studies in high schools by insisting on these propositions, namely:

1. The scope of no single course should be so wide that thorough consideration of some of the problems involved becomes unnecessary.
2. The subjects with which courses deal may be chosen from the whole field of economics.
3. The facts which should govern the choice within this wide field are:
 - a. The facilities for local illustration.
 - b. The equipment of the available teaching force.

I now pass to questions of method, devoting myself in the main to the methods of teaching the principles of economics. *Mutatis mutandis* what I say will apply to other subjects, also.

Let us first notice that few of the classes in economics in this State exceed 30 in attendance. This is important as it shows the possibility of individual work in instruction. My queries to California schools received the following replies:

Enrolment.	Commercial Geography.	Principles.	Economic History.
1-10	7	4	1
11-20	5	3	4
21-30	3	3	2
31-40	0	0	1
41-50	1	0	1
51-60	1	0	0
61-70	1	1	0
Over 70	0	1	0
Not specified	6	6	1

Enrolment.	All.	Principles.
Under 11	12	4
Under 30	32	10
Total reporting	39	12

Outside the State the classes are somewhat larger.

Enrolment.	Commercial Geography.	Principles.	Economic History.
1-10	3	6	4
11-20	12	15	4
21-30	12	14	2
31-40	5	6	0
41-50	2	0	0
51-60	4	1	0
61-70	1	3	1
Over 70	7	5	2
Not specified	5	7	2

Enrolment.	All.	Principles.
Under 11	13	6
Under 30	72	35
Under 40	83	41
Total reporting	109	50

We have previously remarked that eighteen schools in California teach the principles of economics. Nine of these use lectures, the time allotted varying from three lectures out of five periods to the notation "occasional." In one case the first twenty minutes of each hour is devoted to a lecture. Recitations and discussions hold chief place, six of the California schools using them to the complete exclusion of lectures, and relying on text or syllabus for outline material. The same is true of schools outside of California. Of fifty-six schools replying to my questions which teach economics, twenty-eight make no use of lectures, and none use lectures except in a secondary way. For instance, in the Central High School at Philadelphia, where the classes number 100 students each, the first third of the hour is taken for written recitation and answers by the class to questions drawn from the chapter in the text-book assigned for the day. The second third is used by the teacher to reply to questions handed him in writing by members of the class. In the third part of the hour the teacher summarizes the lesson in a way suggested by the questions asked him. I am assured that there is a plenty of questions. Only three, or perhaps four, schools from outside the State state that they occupy in lecture work as much as one-half the time spent in teaching principles. And one of these schools is a continuation school at Gary, Ind., in which the course is an elective in night school, and the conditions somewhat different from ours here.

We use lectures at the University, but it is because we have to, not because we wish to. Something over 400 students enrolled in the elementary courses this year, and probably 300 or 350 will enroll next year. The reduction in numbers will result from a change in the character of the elementary course. We expect a steady growth in the future as we have had it in the past. To conduct the beginning work by recitation and discussion would compel the division of the class into ten or twelve groups of thirty pupils each. There are seven teachers in the department who might be called upon for elementary work. Each would have to take one class, and most of them would be forced to take two. The matter was earnestly debated this year, and it was decided that the abandonment of lectures was inadvisable because it involved so serious a sacrifice of advanced work. As

a compromise a larger number of assistants than usual was engaged for next year, and the course will be taught by means of two lectures a week from the head of the department to the class as a whole, and one hour of discussion conducted by the assistants in small sections under the general supervision of another member of the department. If we had small classes, there would be no question as to the method which we should adopt.

Along with lectures in the high schools are found to some extent short tests. Six schools in California, that is, report the use of five-, ten- or fifteen-minute papers. I doubt, however, that full advantage is taken of this way of encouraging precise and definite thought. The object of the short test is quite distinct from that of the longer reports which some schools employ. The long report teaches the pupil the use of authorities, gives him practice in analyzing problems, and affords an opportunity to express independent judgments. It is too cumbrous to drive home points which the instructor desires to emphasize, and is ineffective in suggesting a variety of practical applications of the principles which the student learns. In college work I have found the short paper of great value. To get the best results the questions should not allow of answers drawn directly from the reading. All the principles involved should have been brought out by the reading or by previous discussion, but the questions themselves should come with a certain freshness.

To illustrate, I quote questions from recent university examination papers, many of which have been used in the weekly work.

On value, classes have been asked:

Would you expect the price of a commodity to fall if its cost of production were lowered? If so, under what conditions, if not, why not? Would you expect the cost of producing a commodity to be lowered if its price fell? If so under what conditions, if not why not?

Trace the effect of an increased demand upon the value of:

1. A pound of rice;
2. A pound of tallow;
3. A pound of silver;
4. A dozen steel knives and forks;
5. A copyrighted book.

On wealth and capital a typical question requires the student to classify a number of articles. Thus:

Are the following wealth: an ocean steamship; a pleasure yacht; a ship on the bottom of the ocean; gold in a mine; a wooden leg; eyesight; a head full of useful knowledge; a waterfall; water. Are these things capital? Why or why not?

On wages we used the classes to explain or criticize the following citation from a report of a recent Secretary of the Navy:

"It is a taking thing to say that \$100,000,000 could be better spent for education or charity; and yet, on the other hand, \$100,000,000 spent in the employment of labor is the very best use for which it can be spent. There is no charity in the interest of the popular welfare or of education so valuable as the employment of labor."

On international trade:

In the year 1908 the exports of merchandise from the United States exceeded the imports by about \$700,000,000. In the same year the imports of gold were about \$148,000,000.

- a. Can such a disparity continue for a long period of years?
- b. So long as it continues, do you regard the situation as favorable for the people of the United States?

We try to get the pupil to see that the principles which he hears and reads about really mean something. If he can be induced to think through them they will become part of his mental property, fit for constant use. If he does not master them in this way the principles will do him very little good. I find it worth while to keep constantly on the lookout for questions in all my reading. Clippings from editorials, extracts from Congressional speeches, official reports, magazine

articles and the like are full of crude economic fallacies and at the same time are thoroughly up to date. I might mention, also, in this connection, a syllabus recently prepared by the Department of Economics at the University of Chicago and obtainable from them at a low price. It is an excellent piece of work, this syllabus. Clear, suggestive, logical, and full of useful questions. I have used it in my own lectures and have referred students to it, and always with good results.

Written work of other kinds may well be combined with the short tests which I have just mentioned. Essays, outlines, bibliographies, and summaries of magazine articles have their use. Needless to say the reading should be carefully selected and articles assigned on both sides of disputed questions. It is no part of instruction in economics to inculcate opinions. On points of theory I should not lay stress on different points of view, especially since most serious writers are very much agreed on the elementary principles; but in applying theory to practical problems such as the tariff, railways, monetary questions and the like, much harm is done by one-sidedness. The pupil should learn, first, that the problems are complex, and second, that they may be analyzed. He should then be given practice in methods of attack. Written work impresses this more than oral, and if not carried to excess need not become tedious.

One of the larger California high schools tells me that it requires the following written work, besides brief tests on reading:

- a. Reports every two weeks covering 40 pages of reading assigned by the teacher.
 - b. Short papers on current events passed in every Friday.
 - c. Theses of from 1,000 to 5,000 words due at the end of the term.
- Last term the best reports were on the following subjects:
1. The Russian Colony.
 2. The street railway system of the city.
 3. The markets.
 4. The (San Pedro) harbor.
 5. Girls as wage-earners in department stores.
 6. The utility of
 - a. Day nurseries.
 - b. Public playgrounds.
 7. The crops of the Imperial Valley.

I do not imagine that these reports brought out much of independent value. The college student is rarely capable of research, and the high school pupil is probably less so. But that is not the point, and the reports have justified themselves when they have accustomed the writers to weigh evidence and to search for the vital facts in the subjects which they attack.

Doubtless in addition to this written work debates in the school or between schools are useful. It is objected that debating encourages one-sidedness. My experience points to the contrary. The student who sees but one side of a case during his preparation is apt to be sadly surprised when the day of discussion comes. Debating, I believe, promotes tolerance. It can also be used to inculcate the spirit of fair play. And best of all, it makes the debater work. There is no set task before a man who is to meet a hostile team. He has to meet a presentation of unknown strength in a field of which he cannot be complete master, under the penalty of personal humiliation if he fails to make a good showing, and with the reward of a personal triumph if he succeeds. The stimuli are very strong. Do not encourage the pupil, however, to write broadcast in search of material. We are in constant receipt at the University of questions from members of debating teams which show a lack of preliminary thought and a willingness to shift the burden of work to other shoulders. Only a few days ago I received a letter asking my opinion of the following—(I quote the substance only):

Resolved, That all controversies to which public service corporations are parties should be subjected to compulsory arbitration.

I was compelled to point out that the term public service corporations could properly be taken to include railroads, street railways, gas, water and electric light companies, wharf, dock, coal and a long list of other companies. These bodies might become involved in controversies with their employees over wages, with their customers over prices, and with their associates over contracts. Nobody would seriously propose the compulsory arbitration of all these things. I might have added that nobody's opinion in such matters could be of much value in a debate. What the writer needed were facts, and it was his task to dig them out for himself. References on specifically named points I should have been glad to give, but it was for him to do the work.

Yet another means of exciting interest in economics is the visit to industrial plants and the visit of business men to classes. I am not disposed to value either very highly, but both have their place. Trips through factories, printing houses, bakeries, sugar refineries, and the like will provide the pupil with some interesting local knowledge, and will help to make him realize the complexity of business organization and the scale on which production in the larger establishments is carried on. One trouble is that the guides are apt to emphasize the spectacular at the expense of the important. I remember taking a college class two years ago through the custom-house at San Francisco. The things which our courteous guide showed us, and the things, to tell the truth, in which the class was most interested, were the strange chemical tests; the appearance of grains of rice under the microscope; the open cases of goods under examination—not the organization of the service, the system of drawbacks, the accuracy of valuations, and the relations between the Washington and the San Francisco authorities. Quite as great difficulties appear when the business man speaks to the class. The Boston High School of Commerce used to lay a great deal of stress on these talks when I lived in Boston three or four years ago. But they found that the business man was too ready to talk generalities to make his instruction of much value. He was too familiar with the details of his work to understand that these details were precisely the things of which his audience knew nothing and of which they desired to learn. Finally, the man in charge adopted the policy of selecting a subject, listing the principal points relating to it which it was desired to have discussed, and then of talking the matter over at length with the prospective speaker. I shall be interested to hear of the success of California schools in this sort of work. Ten out of forty-one teaching economics include visits to industrial plants in their instruction, and an equal number invite outside speakers in. I cannot help suspecting that the chief value of these last-named invitations have lain in their effect in making the speaker interested in the schools rather than in securing information from the speaker for the school. In this, however, I may be wrong. Outside of California twenty-one of the schools which give economics and which replied to my letters provided for visits to industrial plants and fifteen for outside speakers. In some cases a very great deal of emphasis was laid on the former. One school in New York City devotes one hour a week to this work, and another in Springfield, Ohio, sets aside one hour every two weeks.

I have been asked from time to time to recommend textbooks for high school economics. I am loth to do this. The best way to test a book is to teach it, and with the possible exception of Ely's "Outlines of Economics," I have taught no book which I have thought suitable for high school work. One publication which I feel pretty safe in recommending is the syllabus published by the University of Chicago, to which I have referred before. Beyond this, I will merely list for your information the titles of the texts actually in use in the schools of which I have record. These schools

number seventy-six, and the texts which they use and the number of schools using each text are as follows:

Bullock—Elements or Introduction to Economics....	32
Ely and Wicker—Elementary Principles of Economics.	20
Laughlin—Elements of Political Economy.....	5
Ely—Outlines of Economics.....	3
Blackmar—Economics for High Schools.....	3
Seligman—Principles of Economics	1
Seager—Briefer Course	1
Thompson—Political Economy for High Schools.....	1
Walker—Principles	1
Not specified	9
	76

Collateral reading is assigned in a large variety of standard texts, including Taussig and the Ginn series of Selected Readings. I shall be glad to assist to the best of my ability any teachers who may write me concerning usable books in special fields, but to attempt a list of these now is out of the question.

After all, the methods of instruction will vary with the individual teacher, and few general statements can be made to suit all circumstances and all places. I do not personally believe in the lecture as a means of teaching economics. It may have a function in providing a skeleton or outline, but even this can be done by a syllabus or perhaps by a text. Principles expounded by lectures slide from

pupils like water from the proverbial duck's back. Beyond this, I would urge only a few things:

1. Be concrete. If you state an abstract principle, tie it closely to some fact within the pupil's knowledge. You may examine the facts of history and show how principles may be drawn from them, or you may announce your principle and then illustrate and demonstrate it with facts, but keep the two together.

2. Do not insist that there is but one answer to economic problems. Show your pupil the causes for varying answers and the points on which his judgment should exercise itself—and then encourage him to think. He will believe what you tell him anyway, for a while, but when he leaves school your influence will not last longer than your authority unless you make him feel that his conclusions are his own.

3. Do not attempt too much. Your course should train your pupil to handle problems other than those which you discuss. For this you must discuss at least one thing with thoroughness.

If high school instruction in economics be concrete, if it be not dogmatic, and if it be modest in its scope, I am sure that it will be successful in providing that large proportion of boys and girls who end their formal training at the high school with a training which they sorely need. If it have not these characteristics it had best not be attempted at all.

State History in the Public School*

BY PROFESSOR C. ALPHONSO SMITH, UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

We are approaching a new era in our educational campaign. The slogan has hitherto been "More Schools"; it will soon be "Better Text-Books in the Hands of the Pupils." We are on the threshold of changes in our courses of study in the public schools hardly dreamed of ten years ago. What we have considered fundamental subjects are going to be readapted to present-day school needs or eliminated altogether.

The Traditional State History.

For some time I have been reading State histories, and the conviction has grown upon me that they are an outworn inheritance from England. In the traditional English History the reign of the monarch is the chronological unit, and so in our United States Histories we divide by Presidents, and in our State Histories by Governors. The pupil is supposed to memorize both names and dates. Add wars to this list and you have the usual State History. The Governors, in other words, are lined up in single file and the pupil has a word with each as he passes with his teacher down the line from the first to the last. Pauses are made only in the case of wars. Here the gubernatorial stream broadens out into a storm-tossed lake but soon narrows again into the single stream.

Is this history? Will this sort of study ever put the pupil in touch with the great constructive forces that are making and have made every State what it is? The fact is we are living in a democracy but repeating for the school children the formula of a monarchy.

The Remedy.

We must democratize our history, not by lengthening, but by widening and diversifying the record. The traditional history ends where real history should begin. Fifty pages, it seems to me, are enough for the purely narrative part of any State history. This narrative should deal spar-

ingly with names and dates, but it should present interestingly and lucidly the main events from the founding to the present time. This outline, however, at which most histories stop, should be but the real beginning. The pupil learns through this narrative what has been done; he is now to learn how it was done.

The first part may be considered The Result. The second part is The Interpretation of the Result. In the second part he is to learn the significance of the constructive agencies that have determined and conditioned the present status. It is as if the pupil were shown a majestic building. After seeing its imposing outlines his first question is: "How was it built?"

Constructive Forces.

What are these constructive forces? The most important are agriculture, transportation, manufacturing, government, literature, education, religion and representative leadership. These seem to me the natural and necessary headings of the chapters that should follow the narrative introduction. The length of these chapters and the method of treatment would of course be conditioned on the kind of evolution through which the State has gone. But, however modified, these are the forces which have moulded the past of every American State and in which the American places his confident trust for the future. History must correlate these forces with the past and must interpret them in terms of the present. It must give the pupil such a realization of their significance as will make the preceding narrative of his State's development seem not a meaningless tale but the inevitable result of interacting forces. In the case of North Carolina, the recent unparalleled advance along all of these lines and the concurrent efficiency of the State Historical Commission make this method of treatment a practical necessity. No other treatment can make even approximately plain to the pupil or to the outside reader just what North Carolina is to-day and why. Let us glance at these forces in the proposed order of treatment.

* Outline of an address delivered before the Literary and Historical Association of North Carolina, in Raleigh, November 27, 1911.

Agriculture.

No State is making greater comparative progress to-day in agriculture than North Carolina. Even the boys, the captains of the corn brigades, are enthusiastic. Not only have agricultural methods been improved, but the constructive significance of agriculture in the making of a State is being realized as never before. What is needed now is to relate this movement to our past and to put a new conception of agriculture in the home by putting it in the school. The Department of Agriculture sends out bulletins, the good influence of which is limited only by the number of appreciative readers. The time has come to meet these bulletins halfway by preparing a body of intelligent readers in advance. Four-fifths of the inhabitants of North Carolina live in the country. Should not the boys and girls from these homes be made to feel that they are a part of the history of the State? Are they made to feel this in the pages of the political histories that have been written?

The chapter on agriculture would not be filled with statistics, but it would begin with a brief reference to agriculture as a world influence in civilization, and then pass directly to North Carolina. There should be an abundance of illustrations, a discussion of the more epoch-making discoveries and inventions, a clear statement of the nature of the soil and the resultant localization of industries, with a hint of the immense possibilities yet undeveloped. The purpose is not to make professional agriculturalists but enlightened citizens. The emphasis, therefore, should be put upon agriculture as conditioning history. The discussion should be broad, interesting, but elemental, the facts being so stated as to furnish a key to the narrative that has preceded.

Transportation.

The same general treatment would be followed in the chapter on transportation. It would be well to begin with the good roads movement. Is this not constructive? Is it not making history? Does it not contribute to the exchange of ideas and to the facilitation of neighborliness as well as to the increase of commerce? Or one might begin with the proposed Atlantic interior passage from New England to Florida and the Gulf of Mexico. Once touch the constructive imagination of the pupil and you have enriched his civic consciousness. We hear much to-day of the future-minded man. No one doubts his value as a civic asset. But the future-minded man is only the past-minded boy grown up. If the boy is taught to see that the great things all about him are not detached and isolated, but rather the product of influences working silently and convergently through the centuries, influences that he can stimulate or retard, he will be the future-minded man of his generation.

A map of the State, showing the old highways yielding place to railroads or being transformed by macadam, showing also the possibilities of new landways and waterways, would give the pupil a glimpse into the future of the State that he could not obtain from the most elaborate political map. Emerson says that he found roads out West that began broad, then narrowed to a squirrel path, and finally took refuge up a tree. But he must have been journeying backwards. These roads probably began in the tree, passed into a squirrel path, widened into a hog path, swelled into a cow path and graduated into a man path. Road-building does not go backward, and the memory of road-builders should not be allowed to lapse. It was evidently a future-minded man who wrote the inscription on the lone headstone between Hendersonville and Mount Hebron:

"Here lies Solomon Jones,
The Road-maker,
A True Patriot.

He labored fifty years to leave the world better than he found it."

Manufacturing.

"As late as 1810," says President D. H. Hill, in his *Young People's History of North Carolina*, "out of fifteen hundred men present at a military drill, all but forty were dressed in home-spun." There was at that time not a cotton mill in the South. The growth of manufactures in the South since 1810, but especially since 1870, is an epic of absorbing interest. Last year alone more than 100,000 people in North Carolina labored in factories, and the value of their products was more than \$150,000,000.

The transition from the spinning wheel and loom (still seen in remote mountain districts) to the cotton mill, from home-made tobacco to the tobacco factory, and from hand-made furniture to the furniture factory is a transition that has never been adequately treated in our histories. It is a story that is written large over the face of our State but meagerly, if at all, in our school text-books. But a moment's consideration will show that if the study of history in the school-room is meant to be an introduction to the constructive agencies that have touched our life at every point, manufactures, whether by hand or machine, cannot be ignored. The boy or girl who can think through the steps that lead from the raw material to the finished product, and who can relate these steps to the general advance in things of the mind, is a historian in the germ. Such a pupil has learned to interpret facts in terms of forces.

Government.

Not till the pupil has learned the simpler inter-relations of soil, roads and machinery will he be prepared to understand the simpler problems of government. It was just this failure to take into consideration the physical aspects of civilization that made John Locke's Grand Model the joke of North Carolina History.

Civics and agriculture, when studied at all in the public schools, are usually studied apart from history. But are they not necessary to the understanding of history? Even if they are studied both before and after the study of State History, they should also be studied along with and as a part of State History. In North Carolina a beginner's course in agriculture is required in the fifth and sixth grades. The History of North Carolina is taught also in the sixth grade, while civil government is put in the seventh grade. This seems to me an admirable arrangement, provided the significance of agriculture and the significance of good government are made plain in the State History.

As North Carolina is experimenting with the commission form of government for cities the whole subject of civics might well be introduced by calling attention to this new and promising development in the science of self-government. Civics should be taught at least in a human rather than in a formal way, so that the pupil may intelligently think himself through the leading offices of State, county and town. There should be a State government, a county government, and a city government organized from time to time among the pupils. A boy who has played governor, or legislator, or county commissioner, or mayor, or policeman, will have learned that the duties of democratic citizenship need more emphasis than the rights. He will also be enabled to read his State's history with an insight and sympathy impossible before.

Literature.

The history of literature in North Carolina has never been written, but enough is known to warrant the historian in calling attention to our native writers as interpreters and moulders of our history. Two North Carolinians at least, have touched the intellect and heart of the nation in a unique way. Hinton Rowan Helper's book, "The Impending Crisis" (1857) remains the ablest discussion of the economic weakness of slavery that has yet been written. The tone is bitter, but the State cannot afford to omit this man from the roll of its national thinkers. "New England wives," says Helper, "have written the most popular anti-slavery literature of the day. Against this I have nothing to say; it is well enough for women to give the fictions of slavery; men should give the facts." The effect of "The Impending Crisis" on the thought of the nation was hardly less than the effect of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" on the emotions of the nation.

What Helper, of Mocksville, did for the economic argument against slavery O. Henry, of Greensboro, did for the four millions of New York. The one appealed to the head the other to the heart. But both appeals were national and the service of both men should be capitalized in our history for future generations.

I have reference, however, chiefly to North Carolina writers who have found their inspiration in their native soil, writers who have celebrated the scenery or perpetuated the traditions of their own State. Such writers are history-makers and history interpreters. The "Old North State," by Gaston, is the best-known State song in America. Its music and words have done more to bind North Carolinians together in a community of interest and idealism than any other single poem in our literature. It should not only be memorized in every school, but studied as an interpretation of the State spirit at the time when it was written. It is not a final interpretation, but it will stimulate others to attempt a better.

Mrs. Tiernan's "Land of the Sky" (1876) introduced Western North Carolina to the outside world. It did for the region around Asheville a service comparable to that done by Irving's "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow" for the neighborhood of Tarrytown-on-the-Hudson. If Burton Egbert Stevenson, in his "Poems of American History" (1908), finds a place for Seymour W. Whiting's poem on "Alamance" and William C. Elam's poem on "The Mecklenburg Declaration," ought not the historians of North Carolina to find a place for them? If these and similar poems belong to American history, do they not belong also to North Carolina history? If the pupil learns nothing more from them than that literature has from the beginning been the conservator and the herald of history he will have learned a truth that will minister to him as long as he lives.

Education and Religion.

These are grouped here for lack of space and not because they should be grouped in our proposed history. There should be separate maps showing the growth of schools and churches, and a clear statement of their necessary interdependence. The growth and influence of the Young Men's Christian Association should also be outlined as well as the growth and influence of school libraries.

The educational history of the State has already been well written; it needs only to be brought up to date, provided with plentiful pictures and skillfully adapted to public school use. The purpose is to make clear not only the phenomenal advance of recent years, but the heroisms of early years and the moulding influence of education upon every phase of our State's activities. It is the merest commonplace to say that churches and schools are both measures and determinants of a State's progress. But as common as the saying is I have found no State history that traces these two construc-

tive forces in their beneficent influence upon the State's destinies. If mentioned they are merely mentioned. It is at least the highest praise that can be given the story of our State to say that it cannot be understood by any one who ignores or underrates the primacy of intellect or morality.

Representative Leaders.

This chapter should complete and unify all that has gone before. But the leaders chosen should be representative of the constructive forces already mentioned. The makers of North Carolina history have been not only civic leaders in the accepted sense, but farmers, road-builders, manufacturers, educators, writers and preachers. The influence of biography on a reader, it must be remembered is measured not merely by the greatness of the life portrayed, but by the similarity of task and environment that the reader is made to feel between himself and the hero. The biography, in other words, must meet the reader half way. It must reveal the same or kindred interests. It must touch his sense of common humanity. When this is done life is reinvested in life. Longfellow's line. "There is no death, what seems so is transition," receives thus a new meaning. The transition is from the past to the present, from service that has been to service that will be.

To select these representative men, to portray the salient features of their life and work, to relate them properly to the varied activities of the State and to the ideals and interests of the pupils in our schools, is to write history that is not only democratic, but dynamic. It is a task calling for disciplined judgment and wide sympathy, but the reward will be greater than the task.

In Conclusion.

History thus written would not fill the pupil's mind with names and figures, but it would deepen and diversify his interests. It would enable him to correlate the present with the past, and to summon both to the service of a larger future. His imagination would be enlarged both by retrospect and prospect. He would realize that history is not conservation but interpretation, that it deals with the past only to make it live on into the present, and with the present only to garner it for the future.

Above all he would realize that his own honest toil, however humble, was a part of the State's progress, that no one man and no one class of men has made, or is making the fabric of statehood, that it is a collective and composite thing on which many brains have pondered and many hands have wrought. And out of this realization there would come that new conception of the State, a conception which has kindled alike the imagination of the poet and the patriotism of the citizen:

"God gave all men all earth to love,
But since our hearts are small,
Ordained for each one spot should prove
Beloved over all;
That, as He watched Creation's Lirith,
So we, in Godlike mood,
May of our love create our earth
And see that it is good."

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History in the Secondary School

The Use of the Blackboard in the Teaching of History

BY ELDON C. EVANS, ASSISTANT IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

It has long been advocated in educational theory that we should appeal to the visual as well as to the auditory sense of the pupil. Experiments in psychology have proven that some learn chiefly through the organ of sight, and others by means of the organ of hearing. Everyone is taught to repeat this fact in the classes in pedagogy, and to reproduce it on examination. But when the session is over, and the students take up teaching, they usually forget to make use of the good advice given them by their professors. Some have an honest desire to utilize this information, but not knowing just how to go about it, they also soon join the ranks of the backsliders. As a result, in the majority of the high schools, we see no use being made of the blackboard by the history teacher.

THE WRONG USE OF THE BOARD.

However, the mere haphazard employment of the board will not prove of much aid to the student in visualizing his work. I have been in many rooms where the teacher covered the board with figures, letters, dates and names, yet did not accomplish anything except to consume time and space. There was no plan, no organization attempted. There seemed to be no idea of accomplishing anything, and at the end of the lesson the blackboard was a medley of names and dates, and resembled a Chinese puzzle.

A BETTER WAY.

The proper use of the blackboard is not a hard thing to develop. Almost all teachers whose methods are superior have taken advantage of this simple device for helping their students. To deprive them of the assistance of the blackboard would be as great a handicap as the loss of the library. The wonder is that more teachers have not discovered its helpfulness.

One teacher's employment of the blackboard may be just as good, and yet entirely different in some respects from another's method. In every phase of teaching there is room for individuality. While each teacher will have a personal idea of the way the blackboard ought to be used, the following suggestions may be of some advantage to the high-school history teacher:

First, proper names not familiar to the pupils should be written down, especially if they are of foreign names.

Second, the events of importance, as treaties mentioned in the discussion, which the instructor wishes to call special attention to, could be wisely noted in this manner.

Third, a number of topics often are made clearer and more easily understandable by the students if they are illustrated on the board.

Fourth, the object or aim of the recitation and also the advance lesson should always be placed on the blackboard. The principal points taken up under each should be written down as they are given by the pupils. The advance lesson, which the teacher studies with the pupils, should be taken up in more detail. As the facts are developed and their importance discussed, relative to the problem the pupils are trying to solve, they should be so co-ordinated or subordinated that at the end of the lesson the teacher will have the aim worked out logically on the board, much in the same manner that a problem in geometry is first

stated and then step by step the solution reached. The following might be taken as an example of how the blackboard might be used. The lesson is divided into the recitation and advance lesson; the assignment in the regular order would come third, and would grow out of the day's work, in this case, however, it will not be given.

RECITATION.

Aim: to show why the Articles of Confederation failed to provide an adequate government.

I—Nature of the government established:

- (a) A confederation not a nation.
- (b) Relative importance of national and state governments.

II—Why it failed:

- (a) Few powers granted to the central government.
- (b) Lack of ability to enforce laws passed by Congress.
- (c) Votes of nine states necessary to pass any important measure.
- (d) Weakness of the amending power.

III—Reasons for these weaknesses:

- (a) Lack of previous experience to guide the framers of the document.
- (b) Fear of a strong central government becoming too tyrannical.
- (c) Local jealousy.

ADVANCE LESSON.

Problem: to show how the weakness of the Articles of Confederation created a demand for a stronger government.

I—The results of the weakness of the Articles of Confederation:

A—Inability to meet the question of foreign relations—

- (a) Great Britain.
- (b) Spain.

B—Failure to control internal problems—

- (a) Financial.
- (b) Commercial.
- (c) Disputes between the states.

C—The confederated United States appeared to be drifting towards anarchy.

II—Effect of this situation on the people, and, especially, the leaders.

III—Steps leading to the calling of a constitutional convention—the growth of the idea of a stronger government.

- (a) Meeting at Alexandria.
- (b) The Annapolis Conference.
- (c) The calling of the convention for amending the Articles of Confederation.

If the teacher has developed this lesson and has shown the students how the unsatisfactory conditions produced by the failure of the existing government has resulted in a demand for a stronger government, she has produced a need on their part for the work that comes after, the solution of this demand in the shape of a new constitution. In working towards such an end, I am sure she will find the blackboard an excellent aid. It is decidedly worth while.

Social Science Courses for Commercial Students*

BY FRANK P. GOODWIN, WOODWARD HIGH SCHOOL, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

An examination of the new courses in the Cincinnati high schools discloses that each, while contributing in considerable degree to the vocational idea, does not neglect that which develops culture and citizenship. The commercial course, however, measured by this standard is perhaps the most nearly symmetrical of any in which the vocational idea is dominant. Besides the studies which lead directly to vocational efficiency, it contains much that should develop citizenship and furnish the basis for those avocational interests which are a necessary part of every well-rounded character.

I refer particularly to the three years of social sciences included in this course. It is as follows: Modern European History, second year; American History, third year; Civics and Economics, fourth year. Let us take each in turn to determine its character and what it contributes to citizenship and culture and to what extent it may be connected with the vocational motive.

The purpose of Modern European History should be to give the student a body of knowledge and create an interest so that he will be familiar with the great questions of to-day. And by a study of European experiences and a familiarity with the origins of their social and economic questions he will be able to take a broader and better view of those important problems that now are, and for a long time to come, will be of primary importance in American life,—questions all of which the man of affairs should be familiar with if he be successful as a merchant and a citizen.

In preparing such a course we are at once confronted with the fact that the culture and institutions of to-day and many of our great problems have had their beginnings a long way back in the past. Therefore, some familiarity with the life of ancient and medieval times is essential to a real understanding of them. But we cannot add one or two years of history to include the civilization of those times. We cannot, even if desirable, add the much-condemned course, in general history to which we were treated in the days of our youth and which has about gone out of fashion since the Committee of Seven put its seal of disapproval upon it. So there is only one thing left for us to do in order to prevent children from believing that our political, economic and social genesis was in 1492. That is to teach briefly the important contributions to institutional life, of each of the great peoples of ancient and medieval times. For example, we show how Egypt and Chaldea furnished the beginnings of culture in such inventions as the plumb line, the square, the wheel, the pulley, the hoe, the loom; how Palestine contributed ideas of religion and morality; how Phoenicia led in organized commerce and disseminated if not invented the alphabet; how in a large degree we are indebted to Greece for our culture and the beginnings of institutional life and what Shelley meant when he said, "We are all Greeks, our laws, our literature, our religion, our art, have their roots in Greece." Continuing in the course we include such topics as the contribution of Rome to government, law, architecture, and church organization; the gradual civilization of the Teutonic peoples and the part that the monastery and feudalism played in that process; the work of the Crusades in bringing enlightenment to western Europe. We finally close the medieval period with the Italian Renaissance.

In offering such an introduction to modern history we are aware that we render ourselves liable to the charge of heresy based upon the standards of the Committee of Seven. And while not devoting the energy of our pupils to the dreary and profitless task of memorizing facts and dates and the rise and fall of dynasties, we may perhaps be charged with teaching generalizations, the basis of which they cannot possibly examine. While admitting that, we may say in defense that at best any course in history for the secondary schools, however well taught, will have in it some work of this kind. Furthermore, to quote the Committee of Seven, abundant opportunity is given later in the course to so teach history as to lead the pupils "to see how definite facts may be grouped into general facts, and how one condition of things led to another, until they come to a realization of the fact that history deals with dynamics and not statics."

But we are not altogether prepared to admit that such a review of ancient and medieval history as we have outlined need alto-

gether deal with generalizations disconnected with concrete illustrations. Even in the brief time allotted we have found time to make concrete the simple inventions of the Egyptians, the commercial operations of the Phoenicians, a few of the cultural contributions of the Greeks, and even the great ideas of government developed by the Romans. Furthermore, by comparing much of the work of the early monasteries with pioneer life in the Ohio Valley, and by contrasting the economic conditions of feudalism with the economic conditions of to-day, medieval life in the brief time allotted may be made of real interest if not understood in all its phases.

After devoting about ten weeks to this work, we enter upon the period of modern history. A rather rapid survey is made of the period extending from the discovery of America to the French Revolution, completing the work in about seven weeks. Here the work of elimination goes relentlessly on. Much of political, military and religious history that has heretofore consumed valuable time is omitted, while economic and social development receives a greater emphasis than formerly in courses for academic students. Of every fact or movement the question is asked, what does it contribute to an understanding of the institutions of to-day? The causes leading to the discovery of America, the effects of the discovery of America on Spain, the causes of the Reformation, Calvinism and its influences, the effects of the Thirty Years' War on Germany, the economic development of the Netherlands and England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the development of constitutional liberty in England, are some characteristic topics included.

With the beginning of the French Revolution we come to a series of events leading directly to Europe of to-day. So we give that period a more intensive study, devoting the entire second semester to the period extending from 1789 to the present. The Revolution marked the downfall of absolutism and the rise of constitutional liberty in Western Europe; and while it perhaps retarded reform in England, yet the reform movement came in that country in more pronounced form by 1830.

Following the reaction the beginnings of which are marked by the Congress of Vienna, came a series of revolutions extending well into the middle of the nineteenth century; and out of these revolutions came modern France, united Italy, and united Germany. These nations with their burning social and economic questions we are now prepared to study in the light of what we have learned concerning European development.

In the meantime across the Channel there had been going on a series of events which has been termed the Industrial Revolution. Having its rise in England it has extended to the rest of the civilized world and will for all time profoundly affect all peoples who are in any way connected with European civilization. With it are connected the social, economic and political reforms of England. Without it the great socialist and labor movements of Germany would not have occurred. And in our own country the great trust, labor and social problems, are a part of it. It is a far cry from James Watt's steam engine to a strike of woollen mill employees in Lawrence, Massachusetts, and to vocational courses in our local high schools, but the chain of events connecting them is complete.

The final topic in our course of European history relates to the expansion of Europe in the nineteenth century. It is indeed fitting that the work should close with a consideration of how Europe in the nineteenth century has extended her colonial possessions and commerce into Australia, Asia and Africa. The closing topic thus gives an opportunity for the study of most recent colonization and the work of extending world commerce to all parts of the inhabitable world. We here view the completion of the work commenced by Columbus.

The course in American History is not very different from the regular course now offered in the Cincinnati High Schools. Certainly less attention should be given to political history than is given in some high schools so as to emphasize social and economic history. The tariff, banking, monetary questions, transportation, industry and kindred subjects should be given especial emphasis, and local history may be used to advantage in such a course. For example, the course that we contemplate will include the economic development of the Ohio Valley with especial reference to Cincinnati. This is as it should be because in this way are pre-

* Read at the Annual Meeting of Teachers of the Secondary Schools at the University of Cincinnati, March 16th, 1912.

sented in concrete form many of the economic questions that interest persons in commercial life; and such a study will give them a broader view of the business world in which they will soon find themselves. As a matter of course the culmination of this course embraces the important social and economic questions that are to-day attracting the attention of the American people.

These two years of history have given an understanding of the development of contemporary nations and institutions. United Germany now has a meaning which it could not otherwise have; the reason for trusts and labor unions is understood; some idea of the world's commerce and its development on broad lines has been obtained. The student has acquired much of culture, considerable that prepares for citizenship and some that is vocational.

In the course of the work we have studied much of civics and economics and some topics that belong to sociology. In the last year of the course our work will now be classified as civics and economics, but social questions will still find a place although under another title. Especially will we find them in connection with civics.

The ultimate product of the work in civics should be citizenship. It should not be all or chiefly a study of governmental functions. On the contrary it should embrace the whole community relation. And as the interests of the local community more intimately touch the interests of the individual and offer greater opportunities for ethical instruction, so a study of the local community offers greater opportunities for teaching citizenship than civics relating to our national life. Nor should we lose sight of the fact that our students have a definite vocational aim and accordingly emphasize that idea wherever possible. This will call for particular attention to such topics as the relation between the general welfare of the community and business; how business should contribute to the welfare of both the individual engaged in business and those with whom he does business; the dependence of the citizen on the community in business; the responsibility of the citizen to the community in business life; the importance of business life to the well being of the community; the various ways in which the government protects property rights and regulates business; personal rights vs. property rights. Nor should the ethical phases of the labor problem go unnoticed.

Our course in the social sciences is finally completed by a study of economics during the last half of the senior year. We are aware that this subject as a separate branch of study, generally has not found a place in the high school. This is due partly perhaps, to the overcrowded curriculum, partly to the immaturity of high school students, and partly because the high school generally has had no course in the social sciences that prepared students for an understanding of economic principles. In our commercial course, however, none of the reasons need be considered. On the contrary, we believe that economics both for its vocational and cultural value properly belongs to a commercial course for high school students, and that the large amount of economic history and concrete economics which our students have previously had overcomes the other two objections offered.

In addition to the history and civics already outlined, the course includes commercial geography four times per week in the second year. This work in a large degree is a very concrete study of the principles of consumption, production and exchange. For example, the great money producing crops, corn, wheat, cotton, are used as a basis for the study of the locality of production, methods of production, methods and cost of exchange, cost of transportation and manufacture, cost of the finished product, selling price of the producer and cost price to the consumer.

It now remains for us in the last five months of the senior year to organize this rather extensive body of economic facts, to sum up the stages of industrial development and to consider the most important principles relating to how man gains a livelihood to-day. This calls for study of men's economic desires, how men go about the work of production to satisfy those desires, by what means material products are exchanged among men, and how the products of labor are apportioned among the various classes that have united in its production.

But while this course in the social sciences has been prepared especially for commercial students, will it not be just as valuable for students taking other courses than the commercial?

I believe that, wherever possible, a four years' course in history and civics is desirable. But that has found little favor in the Middle West and generally but one year of history is required for graduation. In the Cincinnati high schools, American History is required in five out of nine courses and is optional in two. That is good. If a student can take but one year of history, I believe that he should study the history of his own country. But the trouble is that high schools do not generally have any well organized course in the social sciences and pupils begin the study of American history without training in the method of historical study and with but little knowledge of institutional progress on which the development of American life is based.

For this purpose Ancient and Medieval history will be of considerable value if well taught. By that I mean modernized, connected with the institutional life of to-day. But so long as citizenship and an understanding of contemporary life should be the most important product of the work of the teacher of the social sciences, it appears that Modern European History will prove to be more valuable.

Furthermore, the civics and economics included in this course are as important for the general student or for the student following an industrial course as for the commercial student. Certainly one needs as much guidance in his relation to the community as to the other. And as it hardly can be doubted that a more effective citizenship as well as a more effective business life would result from a better understanding of economic principles, I am inclined to believe that elementary economics will prove of value to all.

In conclusion, permit me to submit the question, What improvements, if any, does the course herein outlined suggest for the social science courses in the secondary schools?

Setting the Problem

BY E. M. VIOLETTE, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

Successful teaching involves on the part of the teacher, the ability to make clear to his students what they are expected to do in the courses they are pursuing, and to indicate at least some of the goals towards which their study is leading them. In other words, it involves the proper "setting of the problem." Inasmuch as I consider this a very vital matter, I wish to set forth a few things concerning it, which are based upon my experience as a teacher for ten years or more. And, in order that it may be clearer to those who may read this article, as to the character of the students I have been dealing with, I would say that during this time I have had regularly each year one class in history of high school rank and two or three classes of college rank.

I have found that the problems that I have been able to put before my students, divide themselves into two groups: First, those which are to be solved in regular class work; second, those which are to be solved outside of regular class work. The first group is made up of all those questions and topics to which the attention of the entire class is directed and upon which teacher

and students put a common effort; the second group is made up of those questions and topics which are assigned to different members of the class for special investigation, the results of which may or may not be brought before the class. In order that this paper may not be too long I shall confine myself to the first group.

In this group of problems I am able to distinguish three different kinds. There are first, the daily problems, that is those problems that are given to-day for to-morrow's study and solution. Such problems should be set before the students in the clearest possible way. The teacher owes it to himself and to his class to state the next day's work in such a manner that he cannot be misunderstood by students of ordinary understanding at least. That usually means a definite assignment in the text-book or books of reference, or in both. It may sometimes be advisable for the teacher to leave it to his students to find the book or books which contain the information wanted, and then to search around therein until it is found. But in high school work and often in the first two years of college work, it is more generally advisable

for the teacher to cite his students directly to those books that may be used in the preparation of the task assigned, and to the very pages in those books. It not only saves the time of the students, but it frequently saves them from that feeling of desperation that oftentimes comes over them when they discover that the material they have found for themselves is either not enough, or more than they can possibly make use of in the time at their disposal. The teacher is supposed to have gone over the field fairly carefully in advance of his students and should aid them in getting directly at the material, and not leave them to flounder around without adequate direction. Perhaps this plan of giving specific references should not be followed all the time. Doubtless there is much to be gained in occasionally leaving the students to their own devices in finding their material, but the likelihood is that if this becomes the regular rule, the laboriousness of the task upon the part of the students will be increased without sufficient compensation to justify it.

Generally, the daily problem should be set before the students with some explanation as to its nature. This may take the form of an outline in which the main topics are set forth, or it may be by way of a few suggestions as to what is significant in the work or what to look for in the study that is to be made. Whatever explanation is given in advance of the lesson, should not be so full as to anticipate all or most of the ideas that the students would evolve out of their own study and thinking over the lesson. A sure way to deaden the interest of the students in their work, is for the teacher to make the outline so full as to predigest all that is given them.

Sufficient time should be taken at each session of the class to make the daily assignment of work. Some teachers allow themselves the first or the last five minutes for this matter. Perhaps, the best time to make the daily assignments of work is at the close of the hour. But many a teacher has found that the safest plan is to make them at the opening of the hour, so that ample time is assured. If the assignment is put off until the very last, the chances are that the matter will be done hurriedly and thus unsatisfactorily. I have found that the character of the work in hand on a given day will determine for me as to whether I will make the assignment of work for the next day at the beginning of the hour or at the close.

The second class of problems that arise in the study of history consists of those whose solution cannot be reached in one day's work but only after several days. Such problems generally arise when the class begins the study of certain well-defined movements or periods. They can usually be best set before the students by undertaking a general survey of the movement or period before the detailed study is taken up. For example, suppose that the unification of Italy is the movement that is to be studied, and the teacher has reason to believe that the students do not have very much information, if any, on the subject in advance of the study they are about to make. It might be well to start the work by spending the first day in taking a survey of the whole movement, some brief account of the same being used as a basis for this study. At the time this survey is being made, the teacher could very carefully indicate what are the significant factors in this movement, and thus open up the way to the more intensive study that will be made in the following assignments. For example, this survey will reveal that at least Mazzini, Cavour, Garibaldi and Victor Emmanuel were among the men whose work made United Italy possible, and the details of their contributions to that end could be made the object of investigation on the following days. Or the problem could be put in the form of a question or two, and the discussion deferred until the proper point had been reached in the study of this movement.

An example in church history will show how problems may be set in that field. On taking up the Reformation, the teacher may ask the students to be prepared at the end of their study of that movement to discuss the attitude of the different rulers towards the Reformation in their own countries, and in other countries, and the effect of their attitude on the course of the Reformation. Or the teacher may put emphasis on the doctrines of the different leaders and set as the problem the comparison of these different doctrines, with the understanding that the discussion of the matter will be had perhaps at the close of the study of the movement. The advantage of this kind of problem is that the students know some time in advance, what they are to work upon when the study of a given movement or period is to be closed up, and they will naturally become alert to discover material on these special problems as they are doing their regular daily work.

The third kind of problem is that which is placed before the class very early in the course, if not at the very beginning, and which cannot be completely solved until along towards the close of the course. The purpose of such a problem is to direct the attention of the students all through a given course to certain conclusions that are to be reached at the end, and then assist in taking definite steps towards those conclusions as the work proceeds. An example or two will illustrate.

In the course in Medieval and Modern History, the teacher necessarily gives a good deal of attention to church history. If he wishes to increase the interest of his students in this phase of his subject, he will begin his work upon it by way of making some study of the church as it is to-day, especially of the Roman Catholic Church. In doing this, he will likely serve two ends. In the first place if he lives in a Protestant community he will likely find that the information which his students have regarding the Catholic Church is very meagre and distorted, and he can by some study of that church as it is to-day, give to them some very important and much needed information, and perhaps set them right as regards many things about which they had been in error. He thus puts them in a position where they can study intelligently, if not sympathetically, the history of that church. In the second place he can then put before them this problem: "How did the Catholic Church come to be what it is to-day?" After the brief survey of conditions at the present, he can begin the study of the history of the church from the very beginning, and as he brings the class along through its various periods, he can point out how it gradually comes to be what it is to-day. At certain stages he can point out the origin and development of certain practices, customs, and institutions. Take for example the College of Cardinals. The understanding of the history of this institution requires a study of the methods of electing the Pope, prior to the creation of the College of Cardinals by the decree of Nicholas II. in 1059, and the evolution of the Conclave System. The teacher who therefore wishes to make clear the historical reasons for the present method of electing the Pope, will be careful to see that his students know at the outset how the Pope is elected at the present and will then study at different points in the course the various methods of his election, from earliest times to the present. All the while the problem is before the students as to how the present method of electing came to be what it is. Other subjects may be treated similarly with equal success.

In English History, the teacher may find it desirable to develop the historical explanation for the present Cabinet System. If so, he will greatly assist himself in this work by having his students make some study of the present organization of the English government either at the beginning of the course or just after the study of the Norman Conquest, and then develop the subject step by step as the medieval organization unfolds itself and becomes what it is to-day.

Personally, I am fully convinced that one of the chief purposes of history study in the schools and colleges should be to enable the students to understand the times in which they are living; to enable them "to read their newspapers intelligently," as some one has put it. And if this is a legitimate object in history teaching, the teacher will find it much easier to attain it by outlining early in his courses, especially in Medieval and Modern, English, and American History, the conditions as they are at the present in their respective fields, and then setting the problem as to how things came to be what they are to-day.

If this is the conscious object of the teacher he will see to it that many of his daily assignments of work will contribute to the solution of the problems set at the beginning of the course. While in a measure every thing in the past has its part in explaining the present, some things are more important than others in that respect, and no teacher would try to show how every event in the past played its part in the evolution of the present. Hence many of the daily problems in history study are concerned with matters that may be apparently of the moment. And yet the daily problem at many points in the course may be cast in such a way so that its solution may bring the student one step nearer to the solution of the problem of explaining the present.

As a matter of fact, however, the teacher will find it difficult to live up to his original intention of bringing before his students the various stages in the evolution of the present out of the past, especially if he is dealing with the history of institutions. He may frequently find that the material needed for developing the different phases of this evolutionary process will be inadequate or poorly organized for his purposes. But the teacher should always

keep the question before him as to whether the work of to-day will assist his students to see the growth of the present out of the past, and if he thinks it will, he should bend every energy towards directing that day's work so that it will make its contribution to that end. If this is done he will find an additional interest in the daily work that will compensate him fully for the extra effort that it may have cost.

Experience has shown me that the second and third kinds of problems that I have been discussing here may be set before students of high school rank, as well as of college rank. Of course, the problems set before high school students should not be as complicated as those before college students. I have not seen such work tried in the grades and am therefore, not prepared to say whether they would actually work or not; but I am inclined to believe that, should they be attempted, they would not be altogether impossible or undesirable, if cast in a very simplified form.

ROMAN SURVIVALS.

(Continued from Page 171)

toms of funerals and mourning. The "screech-owl," that much dreaded visitor of superstitious rustics, is the evil bird of the Roman peasant. Virgil speaks of the belief in odd numbers. The lucky day is the old "*dies albi*," the unlucky day is the "*dies alri*." Our ears tingle when someone is talking of us, and Roman ears were accustomed to act in the same peculiar manner. The Emperor Vespasian cured by the imperial touch as did the monarchs of Europe in later times. Indeed this custom existed in England till the time of Queen Anne who was the last British sovereign to practice it.

While the Roman supplied the fabric of much of our governmental administration, he also gave us concrete examples of the internal improvements that necessarily must follow in the wake of an efficient government. Thus public roads, canals, bridges, aqueducts, free museums, baths, theatres, libraries, schools, parks (of Greek origin), and other public institutions that make pleasant and healthy the life of our cities and states, are a Roman legacy, as well as elective assemblies, magistrates, police and fire protection, and many agencies by means of which these public works are instituted and made effectual.

Many of our buildings for public and private uses are direct copies of Roman types. The architectural form of our theatre is a combination of the ancient Roman circle, or amphitheatre, and the circle of the old Druids, which was used for sports and exhibitions. The domes of our cathedrals and great edifices are a Roman invention, the Pantheon at Rome being the great and ancient example of this style of architecture.

Also, and by no means of least importance, Rome instituted unity in life, and invented universal history. This alone would be enough to give her a commanding place among ancient peoples apart from her other noble achievements in government, law and administration. The Greek idea embodied thought; the Roman, action; the Greek aspired after a philosophy, the Roman after a law; the Hellenic dreams of an efficient political system were realized in the Roman state. Says Hegel ("Philosophy of History," page 289): "The Roman world was the irresistible power of circumstances to which individuality must bend, chosen for the very purpose of casting the moral units into bonds, as also of collecting all Deities, and all Spirits into the Pantheon of universal dominion, in order to make out of them an abstract universality of power."

Finally, Rome was an overwhelming experience in the life of the world. Its past influence on civilization, on religion, on life, can never be sufficiently appreciated, or its future influence adequately foretold. What it did for the past with the accompanying grandeur of martial show and earthly power and glory, it is doing for the present and will do for the future in a quiet and unobtrusive but no less effective manner. Rome still lives, and is a dominant principle in our civilization.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

The annual report for 1911 of The American Telephone and Telegraph Co., contains an interesting chart showing the growth of the number of subscribers' stations from June first, 1876 to June first, 1912.

The third international congress of Archeologists will meet in Rome from the ninth to the sixteenth of October. The congress will be divided into twelve sections covering as many different phases of archeology.

Dr. J. Salwyn Shapiro, of the College of the City of New York, has an article in "The Independent" for August 29, 1912, upon "A New Electoral System for France," which analyses the bill establishing proportional representation, recently passed by the French Chamber of Deputies.

Professor Frederic L. Paxson has published in the proceedings of The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, 1911, a paper upon "The Admission of the 'Omnibus' States, 1889-1890," in which he points out the development of the great northwest, the movement for the admission of the Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Iowa and Washington, and the congressional history of their admission into the Union.

Professor A. C. Krey has published a valuable paper upon "Suggestions for the Teaching of History and Civics in the High School," in the Bulletin of the University of Texas, for October first, 1911. Mr. Krey gives suggestions concerning teachers' helps, text-books, illustrative material, historical fiction, and lists for school libraries. He has suggestions concerning the assignment of the lesson, the use of an outline, the importance of dates and chronological devices, the effects of geography on history, the use of sources and the proper use to be made of the assigned topic.

A joint committee of the Pennsylvania State Legislature is studying the problem of the corporation and revenue laws of the Commonwealth. It is now collecting data upon the forms, regulations, and taxation of corporations, and the proportion of state revenue for all purposes, gathering this material not only from the state of Pennsylvania, but from other states in the Union and the Federal Government and from other nations. The Committee will be pleased to receive suggestions upon any of these subjects. Correspondence should be sent to Francis Shunk Brown, Esq., 105 Morris Building, Philadelphia.

A very active History Club has been maintained at the State Normal School, at Kirksville, Mo., since the fall of 1906. The club is composed of the Professors of History and Government and certain students who are pursuing with distinction, courses in history and government of college rank.

The student membership is elective and is limited to twenty-five. The club meets every other Saturday during each of the four quarters of the year. The programs have varied in character from year to year, but a study of contemporaneous events of importance has always been a feature of every program. During the summer quarter when a number of students return to school after a season of teaching, pedagogical problems that arise in connection with the teaching of history and government are given considerable attention.

DENVER, COLORADO.

The School of Law of the University of Denver opened September 9. The school announces special history courses which the College of Liberal Arts is installing this year.

The courses will be given at the law school on Monday and Tuesday nights. They are offered in connection with the course on constitutional law and also afford high school students, who cannot attend college, a chance to obtain this training.

Dr. C. E. Chadsey, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Col., has gone to Detroit in a similar capacity.

Mr. William P. Rhodes has been transferred from the Manual Training High School, Denver, to the North Side High School.

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON.

Miss Elizabeth Rowell has resumed her work and position as head of the history department at the Broadway High School, Seattle, Wash., after having spent her leave of absence in study at Columbia University.

Mr. Edgar S. Fleming, acting head of the history department at the Broadway High School, Seattle, for the past year, has been appointed head of the history department in the new Franklin High School which was opened this September.

The new course of study for the Seattle High Schools adopted by the Board of Education last spring raised the minimum requirement in history for graduation from one and one-half to two years.

The committee appointed by Superintendent F. B. Cooper to consider the history course has made a report with suggested outlines for each semester of the history work. Mr. D. J. Lothrop, of the Lincoln High School, was chairman of this committee.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

A profitable meeting of the Committee on Courses of Study of the New England Association, Prof. S. M. Kingsbury of Simmons College, chairman, was held in June. The work of this committee is to consider courses in economics and industrial history for high schools having commercial and industrial courses, and for part-time and trade schools. There were present, besides the chairman and secretary, Professor Metcalf, of Tufts College; Mr. Knight, of the Girls' High School, Boston; Mr. Tirrell, of the High School of Commerce, Boston; Mr. Wells, of the Mechanic Arts School, Boston, and Mr. Kidger, of the Technical High School, Newton, Mass.

The general discussion was followed by the appointment of the following sub-committees: To confer with publishing houses, Mr. Knight; to examine existing text-books, Mr. Wells; to correspond with other associations and teachers, Messrs. Tirrell and Kidger.

The annual fall meeting of the association will be held in Boston in conjunction with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association. The date for the meeting of the New England Association is Saturday, December 28, at 2.30 p.m. The general topic for discussion will probably be, "How to Improve the Equipment of the History Department in Schools and Colleges."

The American Historical Association will publish in October the fifth volume of the series of prize essays, "The Political Activities of the Baptists and Fifth Monarchy Men during the Interregnum," by Louise F. Brown (Adams prize, 1911).

Professor Fred Morrow Fling, of the University of Nebraska, is to deliver at Yale University during the autumn term a course of twelve lectures on the French Revolution.

Professor W. L. Westermann, of the University of Wisconsin, will be on leave of absence during the first half of the present year. His "Story of the Ancient Nations" (Appleton) is a welcome addition to the newer text-books on ancient history.

MAY FIRST CLUB.

The first meeting of the May First Club for the new school year was held in San Francisco, September 7, 1912. The speaker was Mr. F. L. Lipman, vice-president of the Wells-Fargo Nevada National Bank of San Francisco, on the general topic of the value of history to the banker. Mr. Lipman discussed the subject from two view-points, knowledge and training. Regarding the first, the banker pre-eminently must know the past in order to foresee the future. He needs a knowledge of the history of banking. Financial crises disclose the banking errors committed in normal times. He can profit by the experience of the past as to methods of storing and protecting treasure. He must know industrial history in order to foresee the future development of his locality, for inventions, development of transportation, movement of population, etc., change the industrial face of a region, and the banker must anticipate this or run the risk of financial disaster. Examples: Effect of discovery of Cape of Good Hope on caravan trade and Mediterranean cities; future effects of the Panama Canal. The banker must understand the history of money and circulation; e. g., why gold is standard of value to-day (result of centuries of experiment, resulting in the survival of the fittest). He needs to know human nature, past and present. It is hard to name any economic activity of the past that is not of value in the present. Economic laws can be understood only in the light of their history.

Secondly, the study of history calls on the same faculties that the banker has to use in his business, particularly insight and judgment. In guiding and controlling the investment of vast sums of capital, he is called on to pass on the soundness of undertakings that relate to the past and future of large sections of country.

In passing on applicants for banking positions, the school subjects considered most important are, in order, Mathematics, History, English. But in order to rise to the higher and more responsible positions in banking, the knowledge and training afforded by the study of history are of especial value.

The Club elected Professor W. A. Morris, of the University of California as "factotum" to succeed Professor J. N. Bowman, who has gone to the University of Washington.

TEXAS ASSOCIATION.

The Texas History Teachers' Association is one of the strongest of the new associations. It meets annually in connection with the State Teachers' Association, usually during the Christmas vacation. At the meeting held last December, of which Doctor Charles W. Ramsdell was elected Chairman, Mr. J. A. Hill, of the West Texas State Normal College, Vice-President, Miss Bess Hackett, of the Marlin High School, Secretary and Treasurer; over one hundred teachers attended. The meeting resulted in a definite consciousness of the need for improvement in history teaching. A committee of five was appointed to investigate conditions in the state and to report at the next meeting. The committee has drawn up a questionnaire addressed to high school teachers of history in the state asking for information respecting their work. The committee is composed of J. W. Curd, of El Paso; R. G. Hall, of Cleburne; J. A. Hill, of Canyon City; S. H. Moore, of Southwestern University, and A. C. Krey, of the University of Texas, Chairman. The topics upon which information is requested in this questionnaire are as follows:

1. What courses in History are taught in your school?
2. How many courses are required?
3. How much time is devoted to each?
4. What text-books are used?
5. What courses do you teach?
6. How many students are there in each of your classes?
7. What other subjects, if any, do you teach?
8. How long are the recitation periods?
9. Do you require collateral reading of your students? How much? Of what kind? How do you test it?
10. Do you require written reports on topical reading? How often? Of what nature?
11. Do you require the use of a permanent notebook? For what purpose is it used? How do you check the notebook work?
12. Do you use source material? To what extent and in what manner?
13. Do you use illustrative material? Of what kind? In what manner?
14. How much time do you devote to geographical work? In what manner?
15. Do you try to correlate history teaching with work in other branches? By what method?
16. Approximately how many reference books are available for students in each field of history? If over 50 different books, merely state the fact. Are the books in the school library or in the public library?
17. What, if any, books do you use as constant reference books in the various fields of history?
18. What relative value do you assign to class work, and to the final examination as the basis for the student's final grade?
19. What special methods do you use to create interest in the study of history?
20. In what grade do you teach civics? Do you think that it can be better taught with American History, or separate from or partly in connection with American History, or partly separate?
21. What are your greatest difficulties in teaching history at present?
22. How many years have you taught in secondary schools? How long have you occupied your present position? What salary do you receive?
23. Of what state are you a native? How long have you lived in this state?
24. In what schools above the rank of high schools have you studied? What courses in history have you studied at these schools?
25. Do you have time to do any studying in history beyond preparation for the daily assignments? Do you travel or engage in study during the summer? What summer school have you attended?
26. What suggestions would you make for the improvement of the teaching of history?

BOOK REVIEWS

ALFRED E. ZIMMERN. *The Greek Commonwealth*. 448 pages, maps, index. Oxford, Clarendon Press. 1911.

This book by a competent authority puts in the possession of any teacher a mass of entertaining and instructive information about Greece and Greek Life. The author states very truthfully in his preface that, "This book is the result of an attempt to make clear to myself what 5th Century Athens was really like. I have tried to convey my vision in the form of a study of the nature, influence, and inter-action of two great forces,—(Geographic and Economic conditions) in Athenian life." To a large degree he succeeds in doing the same for the reader.

The author takes up in Part I the Geography of Greece and treats it entertainingly and at the same time discusses the Mediterranean Area, its geologic story; the Sea and its determining the real life of the Greeks; the Climate, and its effects upon rivers, transportation, and production; and lastly, the Soil, its determining the scenery of Greece and her daily life. Here the author is delightfully clear, and pleasing too, passing from mountains, rocks, and trees to pastures for goats and kine, and on to the tilled areas for corn, wheat, and oil. Even the honey-bee is not forgotten. Part I, of about 50 pages, is profitable reading even for high school and normal school pupils, and, of course, for all who teach Greek History and Literature. Part II, of about 150 pages, is more prolonged and intricate as the topic "Politics" would insure, but at times quite as interesting. The author traces public opinion from the early family to an analysis of the dawn of Greek citizenship, based on religion, law, self-government, in relation, and how it ended in empire. Although the line of argument is long, it is at times particularly illuminating. Part III is on Economics and is a masterly and exhaustive study of Poverty, Work on the Land, War, Crafts and Workmen, Public and Private Property, Warfare, Money, Foreign Trade, Population, Sea-power, Slaves, Mines and Finance, and closes with a chapter on the Peloponnesian War.

I have indicated what one is likely to find discussed in this valuable book. Since I am writing for teachers, hair-splitting criticism is not in order. There is much to be said for the author's abundant citation from Greek literature to illustrate and prove his points; for his painstaking aim to make plain to modern English speaking peoples the life of the Greeks, and his carefulness to trace out the probable developments of his topic from early to late, though his main picture is of the 5th Century Athens; not only so but he frequently compares the Greek way with our own and often warns us to dispossess our minds of preconceived notions. One reading the book for pleasure will find many delightful bits from rare Greek literature to enjoy, many a stimulating suggestion of a high citizenship and love of "plain living and high thinking," and interesting information all along the way. One reading for a detailed and accurate picture of the development of the Greek Democracy can get it by careful and persistent attention over many pages, for the author never forgets that he wants to make you understand.

The general impression of the book is one of profound knowledge of both Greek literature and the literature of Archaeology, and also of one by a very human teacher who remembers that most of us are but beginners in his subject and need to have our interest refreshed by new wonders. Its helpfulness to all teachers, either for topical reference or general reading, is surely large.

Horace G. Brown.

FORMAN, S. E. *The American Republic*. New York. The Century Co. Pp. xviii, 359. \$1.10.

This book is intended as "a text in civics for high schools, academies, and normal schools," and is much more elementary in character than the book bearing the same title and published by Professor James A. Woodburn several years ago. It is an abridgement of the author's "Advanced Civics," which has been in use in high schools since 1905. The new book is a good, general text, covering the entire relation of the individual to the national, state, and local governments. It includes a discussion of some subjects such as education, charities, and international relations, not always treated in books of this kind. Its distinctive feature, perhaps, is its direct teaching of political morality.

The style is clear and interesting, but not always accurate in matters of detail. Even though published late in 1911, the admission of new states and the enactment of new legislation have

caused some small parts of the book to be out of date. The method of referring to books of reference by number is cumbersome and not very satisfactory. These, however, are minor defects and the book should give good results in the hands of a capable teacher.

Thomas F. Moran.

LEARNED, HENRY BARRETT. *The President's Cabinet, Studies in the Origin, Formation and Structure of an American Institution*. Pp. xii, 461. Yale University Press, 1912.

In the thirteen essays of which this book consists, Dr. Learned presents the structure of the President's Cabinet, reserving for a later work its functions, which he expects to discuss under the general topics, practices and personnel. While the author speaks of the volume as containing a group of studies, and some of the chapters have already appeared as separate essays, the present book is a unified and coherent discussion of a single topic, which is convincingly and agreeably set forth.

Twelve of the chapters deal in succession with the historic significance of the term "cabinet" in England; the basis of the president's cabinet, 1775-1789; the development of the idea of a president's council, 1787-1788; the principal offices in 1789; the creation of the cabinet, 1789-1793; the term "cabinet" in the United States, 1793-1907; the attorney-generalship; the secretaryship of the navy; the postmaster-general; the establishment of the secretaryship of the interior, of agriculture, and of commerce and labor.

In the thirteenth chapter are presented some "conclusions," which deal somewhat more in general with the topics treated in detail in the preceding chapters. Our cabinet is dependent upon that of England for almost nothing except its name; having been created by Washington in response to a demand for a board of qualified assistants and confidential advisers, a demand not at that time definitely formulated or expressed (p. 369). The first seven departments were created solely with a view to relieving the president of some of the burden of administrative duties. The department heads are merely assistants and advisers to the president in contradistinction to the political character of the English cabinet. The remaining two departments were created in answer to a widespread demand, and "marked a notable variation, if not a new phase, of administrative progress and development" (p. 474.) The secretaryship of agriculture was created to advance the development of farming and the education of the farmers; the secretary was never thought of as a political adviser to the president, and his functions are not among those originally attributed to the chief magistrate. Likewise the secretary of commerce and labor is appointed in view of that attitude of government which borders on paternalism. His functions are those of a servant of the people rather than of the president. In fact, the growth of the president's cabinet follows the course of the development of government in the last century as our ideas of the functions of government have expanded and the *laissez faire* theories of the earlier decades have been renounced. While the fundamental purpose of the creation of the later secretaryships may be so clearly differentiated from that of the earlier ones, there has been no departure from resolution to preserve the unity, responsibility and discretion of the head of the administration (p. 379), to whom all the cabinet members are directly responsible. The president is the executive and the cabinet assist and advise him when he wishes assistance or advice.

The scholarship and printing of the book leave nothing to be desired. A number of interesting appendices are added, such as a note on the relation of the attorney-general to private practice. There is a "list of authorities" which may be called a bibliography on the American executive.

Edgar Dawson.

In the latest volume, "St. Bernard and Other Papers" of the Centenary Edition of Theo. Parker's writings can be found valuable material on slavery times in the following essays:—

The Aspect of Slavery in America.
The Effect of Slavery on the American People.
Parker on the Fugitive Slave Law.
Parker in the John Brown Campaign.

The latter, by F. B. Sanborn, a living partner in the drama, contains numerous letters of Brown, Parker, and others to Dr. Howe, Sanborn, T. W. Higginson, et. al., all revealing the intense spirit of those days just before Harper's Ferry. The volume is worth consulting and proves a stimulating review of those times.

LIST OF BOOKS UPON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JULY 27 TO AUGUST 31, 1912.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

- American History and Institutions. In 4 vols. Philadelphia: Home Univ. League, 1011 Chestnut Street. Each \$2.50 net.
- Blount, J. H. The American Occupation of the Philippines, 1898-1912. New York: Putnam. 664 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Brigham, Clarence S., ed. British Royal Proclamations Relating to America, 1603-1783. Boston: Am. Antiq. Soc. 268 pp. \$2.50
- Clayson, Edward. Historical Narratives of Puget Sound. Hood's Canal, 1865-1885. Seattle, Wash.: The Author, 1320 Arcade Way. 106 pp. 50c.
- Crawford, Coe I. A Review of the History of the French Spoliation Claims. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 35 pp.
- Currey, J. Seymour. The Story of Old Fort Dearborn. Chicago: McClurg. 173 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Dale, Edward E. Territorial Acquisitions of the United States. Norman, Okla.: Democrat Topic Company. 53 pp. 35c.
- Faust, Albert B. Das Deutschtum in den Vereinigten Staaten. New York: G. E. Stechert. 504 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Kansas: A Cyclopedia of State History. 3 vols. in 4. Chicago: Standard Publishing Company. \$27.50.
- Leslie's Weekly. At the Front with the Army and Navy: A Pictorial History of the Civil and Subsequent Wars. New York: Leslie-Judge Company. 141 pp. \$2.50.
- Lowery, Woodbury. The Lowery Collection: A Descriptive List of Maps of the Spanish Possessions within the Present Limits of the United States, 1502-1820. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 567 pp.
- Madison, James. Famous Original Letter against Nullification. New York: G. D. Smith, 48 Wall Street. 5 pp. \$3.00.
- Morris, Charles. The History of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 326 pp. 75c.
- Paine, Thomas. Common Sense on the Origin and Design of Government in General; together with the American Crisis, 1776-1783. New York: Putnam. 380 pp. \$1.00.
- Pennsylvania Cavalry, Seventeenth Regiment. History of the Seventeenth Regiment, Pennsylvania Cavalry, 1861-1865. Lebanon, Pa.: Sowers Pr. 472 pp. \$2.00.
- Richards, Frederick B. The Black Watch at Ticonderoga. Glen Falls, N. Y.: The Author. 98 pp. Privately printed.
- Shirley, William. Correspondence of William Shirley, Governor of Massachusetts, 1731-1760. In 2 vols. New York: Macmillan. \$5.00 net.
- Siebert, Wilbur H. The Colony of Massachusetts Loyalists at Bristol, England. Boston: Massachusetts Historical Society. 8 pp. Privately printed.
- Virginia State Library List of Revolutionary Soldiers of Virginia. Richmond, Va.: D. Bottom. 488 pp. \$2.50.
- Wislizenus, F. Adolph, M.D. A Journey to the Rocky Mountains in the Year 1839. St. Louis: Historical Society. 162 pp. \$2.50.

Ancient History.

- Du Pontet, Clement. The Ancient World. New York: Longmans. 388 pp. \$1.20.
- Hogarth, David G. Hittite Problems and the Excavations of Carchemish. New York: Oxford University. 16 pp. 40c. net.
- Johns, Claude H. W. Ancient Assyria. New York: Putnam. 175 pp. 40c. net.

English History.

- Bosworth, George F. East London. West London. (Cambridge County histories.) New York: Putnam. 256, 267 pp. Ea. 45c. net.
- Brown, M. W. Northamptonshire. (Cambridge County histories.) New York: Putnam. 315 pp. 45c. net.
- Clemesha, H. W. A History of Preston in Amounderness. (Manchester University History Pubs.) New York: Longmans. 344 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Ditchfield, Peter H. Oxfordshire. (Cambridge County histories.) New York: Putnam. 218 pp. 45c. net.
- Fletcher, Charles R. L. Teachers' Companion to a School History of England. New York: Oxford University. 64 pp. 35c. net.
- Foster, William. The English Factories in India, 1637-1641; a Calendar of Documents, (etc.). New York: Oxford University. 339 pp. \$4.15 net.
- Jenks, Edward. A Short History of English Law from the Earliest Times. . . . Boston: Little Brown. \$3.00 net.
- Johnson, Walter. Byways in British Archaeology. New York: Putnam. 529 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Lincoln, England. Royal Charters of the City of Lincoln. New York: Putnam. 308 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Lucas, Sir C. P. Lord Durham's Report on the Affairs of British North America. In 3 vols. New York: Oxford University. Vol. 1, \$2.50 net; Vols. 2 and 3 ea. \$3.40 net.

- O'Neill, Elizabeth. England in the M. A. New York: Dodge Pub. 94 pp. 20c. net.
- Orpen. Ireland under the Normans, 1169-1716. 2 vols. New York: Oxford University. \$6.75 net.
- Poole, Reginald Lane. The Exchequer in the Twelfth Century. New York: Oxford University. 195 pp. \$2.15 net.
- Robinson, Frederick P. The Trade of the East India Company from 1709 to 1813. New York: Putnam. 186 pp. (5 pp. bibl.). \$1.10 net.
- Scott, W. R. Joint Stock Companies to 1720. In 3 vols. New York: Putnam. Each \$6.00 net.
- Shadwell, L. I. Enactments in Parliament Specially Concerning the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. In 4 vols. New York: Oxford University. 359, 407, 419, 383 pp. \$12.75 net.
- Thompson, A. Hamilton. Military Architecture in England During the M. A. New York: Oxford University. 384 pp. (9 pp. bibl.). \$3.00 net.
- Walton, Edgar H. The Inner History of the National Convention of South Africa. New York: Longmans. 346 pp. \$3.75 net.

European History.

- Bridges, John H. France under Richelieu and Colbert. New edition. New York: Macmillan. 164 pp. 90c. net.
- Fisher, Herbert A. C. The Republican Tradition in Europe. (Lowell Lectures for 1910.) New York: Putnam. 363 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Mims, Stewart L. Colbert's West India Policy. New Haven: Yale University Press. 385 pp. \$2.00 net.

Medieval History.

- Haddon, Alfred C. The Wanderings of Peoples. New York: Putnam. 124 pp. 40c. net.
- McKillop, A. E. Chronicle of the Popes from St. Peter to Pius X. New York: Macmillan. 487 pp. \$2.50 net.

Miscellaneous.

- Acton, J. E. E. [Lord]. The Cambridge Modern History: Second Supplementary Volume, Atlas. New York: Macmillan. 229 pp. \$6.50 net.
- Catholic Encyclopedia. Vol. 14. New York: R. Appleton Company. 800 pp. \$6.00.
- Duchesne, Abbé L. M. O. Early History of the Christian Church. Vol. 2. New York: Longmans. 544 pp. \$2.50 net.
- FFoulks, Charles. European Arms and Armour in the University of Oxford. (Catalogue, with notes.) New York: Oxford University. 64 pp. \$6.75 net.
- Laufer, Berthold. Jade: A Study in Chinese Archaeology and Religion. Chicago: Field Museum. 310 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Stephen, Sir Leslie, and Lee, Sidney L. Dictionary of National Biography. Second supplement. Vol. 1, A to Ey. New York: Macmillan. 649 pp. \$4.25 net.

Biography.

- Skemp, A. R. Francis Bacon. New York: Dodge Pub. 94 pp. 20c. net.
- Butler, H. Montague, D.D. Lord Chatham as an Orator. (The Romanes lecture for 1912.) New York: Oxford University. 40 pp. 70c. net.
- Howell, A. G. F. Dante, His Life and Work. New York: Dodge Pub. 96 pp. 20c. net.
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- Callendar, Geoffrey. The Life of Nelson. New York: Longmans. 154 pp. 50c. net.

Government and Politics.

- Betts, C. H., and Roosevelt, Theodore. The Betts-Roosevelt Letters: A . . . Discussion on a Pure Democracy. Lyons, N. Y.: Lyons Republican Company. 93 pp. \$1.00.
- Dougherty, John H. Power of Federal Judiciary over Legislation. New York: Putnam. 125 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Fawcett, Millicent G. Women's Suffrage: A Short History, (etc.). New York: Dodge Pub. 94 pp. 20c. net.
- Forman, Samuel E. Advanced Civics. New York: Century Company. 456 pp. \$1.25.
- Hasse, Adelaide R. Index of Economic Material in Documents of the States of the United States; Ohio, 1787-1904; parts 1 and 2. Washington, D. C. Carnegie Institution. 638, 639-1136 pp. \$14.00.
- McLaughlin, A. C. The Courts, the Constitution, and Parties. Chicago: University of Chicago. 299 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Platforms of the Two Great Political Parties, 1856-1908. Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office.
- Ransom, William L. Majority Rule and the Judiciary. New York: Scribner. 183 pp. 60c. net.
- Redmond-Howard, L. G. Home Rule. New York: Dodge Pub. 94 pp. 20c. net.
- Sedgwick, Arthur G. The Democratic Mistake. New York: Scribner. 217 pp. \$1.00 net.

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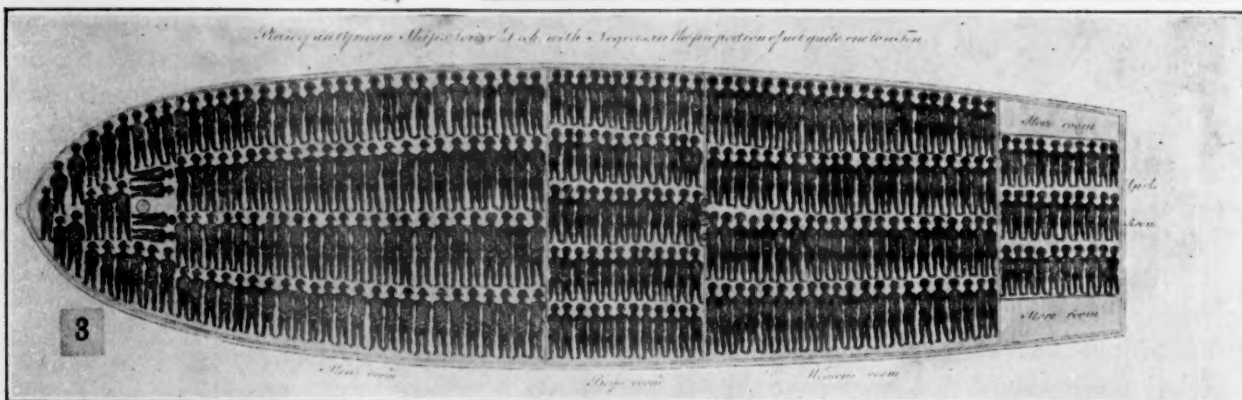
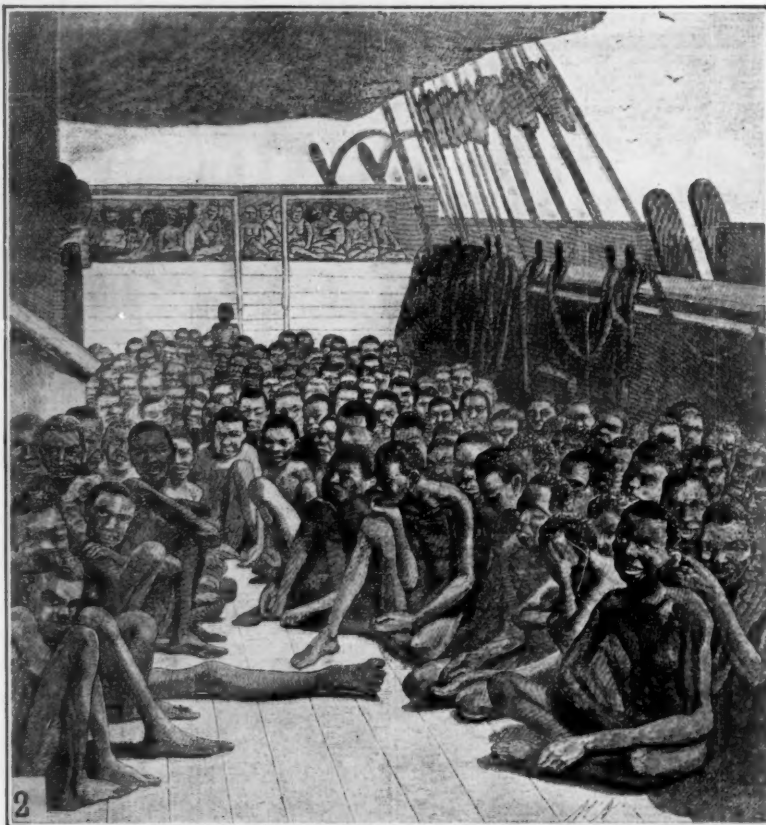
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No. 2. The deck of a captured slaver. This picture is taken from a daguerreotype of slave-vessel captured in 1860.

No. 3. The plan of a slave ship's lower deck, with negroes in the proportion of not quite one to a ton. This arrangement of the cargo was permitted by the English Act of 1788. From an old print.

No. 4. View from an English traveler's account of the Southern States, showing slave auction in New Orleans.